

The CLEARING HOUSE

A JOURNAL FOR MODERN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Vol. 32

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No. 2

In this issue:

Revolution in Reading Instruction

by EDNA L. FURNESS

A Defense of the Less Gifted

by FRANCIS A. KLEINHENZ

A High-School Principal Looks at Juvenile Delinquency

by ROBERT WAYNE CLARK

Antisocial Behavior: Whose Fault?

by JOSEPH RESNICK

Education as a Profession . . . Bonds of Understanding in Public Relations
. . . Teach Math in the Laboratory . . . Modern Art and the Modern School
. . . Would You Be Interested in a Year of Study on Full Pay?

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Contents

| | | |
|---|--|-----|
| Modern Art and the Modern School | <i>Van Cleve Morris and I. L. de Francesco</i> | 67 |
| Revolution in Reading Instruction | <i>Edna L. Furness</i> | 72 |
| Teacher in a-Musing Mood | <i>Ann Ess Morrow</i> | 75 |
| Teach Math in the Laboratory | <i>O. R. Barkdoll</i> | 77 |
| A Defense of the Less Gifted | <i>Francis A. Kleinhenz</i> | 80 |
| Automobiles and Pupil Adjustment | <i>Selby Sharp</i> | 83 |
| Would You Be Interested in a Year of Study on Full Pay? | <i>Edgar Logan</i> | 86 |
| A High-School Principal Looks at Juvenile Delinquency | <i>Robert Wayne Clark</i> | 89 |
| What Should Teachers Know About Underdeveloped Countries? | <i>Sister M. Flora</i> | 93 |
| Functions of the Junior High | <i>Clayton E. Buell</i> | 97 |
| Bonds of Understanding in Public Relations | <i>M. Dale Baughman</i> | 101 |
| Antisocial Behavior: Whose Fault? | <i>Joseph Resnick</i> | 103 |
| Justice Via the Student Court | <i>Charles A. Tonsor</i> | 105 |
| Education as a Profession | <i>John F. Ohles</i> | 108 |

Departments

| | | | |
|---------------------|-----|----------------------|-----|
| Tricks of the Trade | 96 | Book Reviews | 113 |
| Events and Opinion | 111 | The Humanities Today | 119 |
| Audio-Visual News | 125 | | |

CH articles are listed in the Education Index.

CH volumes are available on microfilm.

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Modern Art and the Modern School

By VAN CLEVE MORRIS and I. L. de FRANCESCO

OF ALL THE THINGS that youngsters study in school, one of the most misunderstood and hence controversial is art, probably because art itself, being the kind of beast that it is, is usually in some state of contention with the appreciating public. This situation is true of other things too, of course. Whenever the public understanding is contending with anything that is difficult to integrate into social experience—communism, rock 'n' roll, competing religious dogmas—it is a certainty that this thing will not get much of a play in the school. And art, particularly so-called "modern" art, is just such an aspect of our lives.

It is not uncommon for laymen to be heard decrying the intrusion of modern art education into the public school with epithets of "tomfoolery," "frilliness," and "humbug." A little less frequent is the voice of the educator who seeks to answer the lay critic and explain the role of modern art in the curriculum. Rarer still is the educator who can be seen siding with the layman in his evaluation of this controversial component of our present-day school curriculums.

Rare or not, such a statement appeared in this journal in May of 1955 with Dr. Leon Mones, assistant superintendent for personnel of the Newark, New Jersey, public schools, asking the question: "'Modern' Art: Should Teachers Oppose It?" His unqualified answer was "Yes," and his essay was a masterful rebuke of the "thoughtful educator" about to be taken in by the "humbuggery" of "cultists."

Now, without question, there is some humbug in all art, modern or otherwise, as there is in probably most of the things men do; and it is likewise true that some "suggestible, timid, immature, and fanciful people," as Dr. Mones speaks of them, are made "ripe" for this humbug by the excesses of some art enthusiasts. But all considered, Dr. Mones makes the same mistake his lay comrades make when he generalizes so magnanimously in all directions as to dispose of "modern" art altogether and to identify all students and/or practitioners of "modern" art with the opprobrious label of "cultists."

Certainly this is no way to think seriously about the problem. What needs doing is a thoughtful examination of what modern art genuinely is, what role it performs in modern life, what meaning it carries for the youngster in school, and what a prudent professional attitude toward it should be.

First of all, what do most people mean when they speak of modern art? Careful observation indicates that works of art which differ from the accepted or traditional mode, or which differ in concept or technique, or which use unorthodox materials, automatically suggest the label "modern." It is also apparent that lack of understanding of the artist's purposes in deviating from the traditional patterns, naturally if not logically, arouses suspicion.

An additional, widespread error of judgment is to consign all facets of contemporary art to one limbo by referring to them

 EDITOR'S NOTE

About 27 per cent of secondary-school pupils are enrolled in art classes of one kind or another, according to most recent nationwide statistics. This means that nearly 1½ million boys and girls are "taking" art. What do they study in art classes? Is their instruction based on traditional art forms or is some attention given to modern art? Why should modern art be taught and how can it be taught effectively? These are controversial questions. As the authors point out, they have always been controversial questions. Whether or not you understand pure design or a Dali painting, please keep an open mind on the desirability of teaching modern art for the ten minutes needed to read this article.

Van Cleve Morris is associate professor of education at Rutgers University and I. L. de Francesco is professor and director of art education at State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa.

as "modern" without benefit of sound aesthetic basis for doing so. Except for specialized collections, most museums and private collections include a variety of modes of expression produced within half a century, and ranging from stark realism to stylization, symbolism, abstraction, and nonobjectivism. This fact is consonant with democratic thinking, namely, that the artist is free to choose the mode most congenial to him, even though art itself has many faces, and that the consumer of art has the same freedom of choice.

But how can one choose except to test and taste open-mindedly? Strangely enough, many of those who inveigh against modern art are easily excited about modern cars, furniture, architecture, television, and atomic energy. Would these same people drive Model T's, buy mission furniture for their homes, live in log cabins without modern conveniences? The answer is obvious.

Let us now look at the matter from another angle. The history of civilization, es-

pecially as it is reflected in the history of art, shows that every age has had its modern artists and, therefore, its "modern" art. Indeed, it could not be otherwise in view of man's eternal striving to conquer and adapt the environment to his purposes. In this effort, he has improved methods, discovered new media, and, in general, progressively said better and far more effectively all that he longs for or achieves. There have always been changes, and these have almost invariably resulted in progress: in mechanics, in the natural sciences, in medicine, in social organization, in government, and even in human relations. How has it all been accomplished? Simply through experimentation, the use of imagination, and adventuring in the realm of ideas.

Art is pre-eminently man's way of interpreting and expressing ideas and emotions. It seems hardly logical, therefore, to deny it the privilege of investigation and of experimentation when all other departments of human activity are accorded that prerogative. New forms, new techniques, and completely new idioms have usually evolved from the experiments and the unique outpouring of creative minds. For example, the monolithic and inert sculpture of Egypt is a forerunner of the rhythmic, moving, and idealized sculpture of Greece. The hieratic mosaics of the Byzantine era foreshadow the seemingly "out-of-proportion" figures of the Gothic age. Turner's paintings, which are generally accepted as realistic, in truth are experiments in the use of color which eventually ushered in impressionism. El Greco's highly subjective works, elongated and distorted, herald the expressionism which was to flower in the great variety of "isms" of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. At that point in history, hallowed formulas could no longer express the new freedom (in politics, religion, science, music, poetry, and so on) which welled up in men's hearts.

A traditional concept of art, at very best, can provide only a reflection of the surface.

But the substance of art is deeper and more meaningful than that. Its development shows that its concern is the interpretation of man and the world. Incidentally, Hieronymus Bosch, and not Dali, was the first surrealist. "The Creation of Adam" by Michelangelo is a superlative flight of imagination, not mere realism.

The subject matter of art is another phase which is usually misunderstood. Religion was, for a long time, the chief source of inspiration and of subject matter. But time and the progress of mankind have added new human concerns: science, history, psychology, and philosophy. In fact all humanistic efforts have rightfully become the realm of art. As man's concepts have developed and as his insights have been deepened to cope with the complexities of life, so art has found its new role either as catalyst or as interpreter. And it is as "catalyst and interpreter" that art takes its stand on "representationism."

This stand is not simply one of opposition to representationism, an attitude facetiously described by Dr. Mones with the maxim, "Nothing should look like anything." It is rather the view that representationism in art is *irrelevant*. Art cannot be viewed merely as a report on externalities but rather as a revelation of life's deeper significance. And if it is the deeper meanings of life art is looking for, then representation is neither good nor bad but altogether beside the point.

Why, when you come right down to it, must a picture look like something? We make no similar demands on other art forms.

What does great music "look" like? What specific form does architecture resemble? Is there a semblance in the dance? These strike us as irrelevancies. What does a Chopin étude sound like, what does it represent, what does it *mean*? The answer is very simple—precisely nothing. It doesn't represent a blessed thing. It simply stands there, a lovely and moving arrangement of

sounds, prompting in us feelings of newly excited union with our world for having seen it in a fresh and novel way. All art tries to do this—to awaken our sensibilities, to quicken our awareness of being alive and existent in a world which all too fleetingly passes us by. If art were to be hounded by the dictates of representationism, we should be content with camera snapshots and Christmas calendars from the local milkman. But these artifacts of our lives are not art; they are merely documentations of the surface appearances of our visible world. What they patently are incapable of is the capture of our imaginations and the hold on our emotions which we have come to expect from aesthetic experience. Of course, Dr. Mones is not advocating a return to calendar art, but in his rebuke of the modern artist's disregard for representation he considers it a suitable criterion for determining aesthetic qualities in works of art. Modern artists dispute this, asserting that representation or nonrepresentation is altogether beside the point in making aesthetic judgments.

Modern art then is not the wild-eyed, cultistic fanaticism of "intellectual conceit" and "artistic indulgence," as Dr. Mones has said, but the honest and sincere effort of ordinary human beings, blessed perhaps with a keener eye and freer spirit, to portray the world we live in in modes and ways which we had never considered before. How can we possibly disqualify this artistic enterprise? This is the stuff human possibilities are made of!

But the most comprehensive of Dr. Mones' criticisms and the theme around which his essay is built is that of "communicability." He has inferred, and correctly so, that the function of art is to communicate. However, one cannot agree that realistic representation is the only mode of visual communication. It is one means for those who choose it and like it. However, there are the haptic, the architectural, the idyllic,

the poetic, and so on. Who shall communicate to them, and how? Furthermore, the transition from symbol to idea is more abstract and more complex, but it is, nevertheless, valid. For instance, symbols are used in the sciences and in mathematics. Those who have learned to understand the meaning of symbols see quite clearly stresses, strains, fusion, fission, and other functions.

It then becomes obvious that communication, to exist, must be a two-way, a reciprocal, process. There are millions to whom even classical music, classical art, and classical poetry mean little or nothing, yet they hear, see, and read. Why is there no communication? Simply because the receptor is not in tune with the sending apparatus. To place the entire responsibility on the artist, as Dr. Mones seems to do, is hardly fair or logical. The receptor also has an obligation, namely, to place himself in position to receive what the artist is attempting to communicate.

Of course, the implication, subtle or otherwise, of Dr. Mones' remarks is that modern art, being "cultist" to begin with, has nothing genuine to communicate to the receptor. At the very best it is the indulgent self-expression of the artist which the viewer finds so esoteric and private as to be inaccessible. Seeking to be moved, anxious for aesthetic response, the viewer remains in a state of agonized suspension until frustration and despair take over.

Happily this reaction to modern art is not universal; if it were, there would be some legitimacy in the complaint. The truth is that modern art, like modern psychiatry, modern religion, modern politics, modern "do-it-yourself-ism," requires some participation, some active involvement of the individual. And with the increasing involvement, we now know, come intensified response and hence greater satisfaction from the whole experience.

But the most serious trouble with Dr. Mones' thesis comes when we apply the doctrine of communicability to the educa-

tive process. Fundamentally Dr. Mones labors under the heavy doctrinal hand of John Dewey. It was Dewey who built the grand conceptual edifice of the social character of human maturation and the companion doctrine of communicability and sharability in human learning. In general this edifice still stands, and most of us in education work within it. But when the teacher reaches the field of art, there is some legitimacy in recommending that he step outside this mansion for at least a moment or two. It is true, as our protagonist has said, that "it is only as we learn to externalize the elements of consciousness, to socialize them, to relate them to our lives with others, that we become educated." To be sure, one of the tasks of contemporary education, especially art education, is to insure that those who are being educated are attuned to the great ideas, the modes of expression, the social ways, and the cultural currents of their own time. But it does not automatically follow that, therefore, "moods that have no communicative meaning, internal agitations that have no semantic significance are not the stuff of education. . . ." For who is to tell what "internal agitations" are potentially communicable? Are they all to be disqualified at the outset merely because they are internal? Who is to say what internal agitations, moods, hunches may later become magnificently sharable, like Edison's internal agitation about the electric light or Handel's agitation of "the Great God Himself" in *The Messiah* or Rubens' unmistakable self-immolation in his "Elevation of the Cross"?

Do we seriously propose to ourselves that the inner, inspired musings of the youngster in school are to be ruled "out of bounds" merely because they are not at the moment transferable to others? If anything, this is exactly what is wrong with modern education. It has fallen in love with the doctrine of the social and cultural origin of human personality and character and,

in its blinded passion, concludes that this is all there is to man. In pursuit of this idea, it has invented "group dynamics," "social promotion," "sociograms," and a basketful of other devices to develop the social man. There is certainly nothing wrong in all this. On the contrary, these developments are to be applauded. But this is not to say that they exhaust the possibilities for educating the human person.

Education has learned much about human beings. But in its remarkable advances, it has forgotten what it means for a human being to be an individual, a unique and ultimate existent, alive and at work in the world. A man is not merely a member of a corporate society, not just a reflector of a system of values, not simply a compliant respondent to the sharable and communicable in life. He is also the creator and originator of things to be shared, the genetic starter for new and novel conceptions to be added to the world. Indeed, it is in this office that he achieves genuine humanity and that precious dignity which we believe belongs uniquely to him.

Dr. Mones certainly is no advocate of the "mass man" ideology. But in insisting on communicability for all that transpires in the school, he excludes the very mediums—inspiration, feeling, hunch, inner agita-

tion—through which men have a chance of escaping the heavy overlay of mass culture under which they now live. When he says that "education, by its very nature must resist . . . any kind of seclusive and esoteric retreat into privacy," he is denying the individual the very thing needed for the release of inspiration or creative genius. Privacy, in his lexicon as in so many others nowadays, has come to be a bad word. Privacy is almost immoral in this age of social convention, group conduct, and psychodynamics. Maybe the world could use more of it, instead of less.

Dr. Mones is quite right when he says that modern art is escapist. Indeed it is, and in the very best sense of the word. It is a channel of release from the deadening impact of tradition and convention, of all that has gone before as given, settled, and orthodox. As such, it stands alongside many other activities of life which serve a similar function. But the point is that we cannot do without any available escape route, in school or out, so long as the ingenious and creative individuality of man continues to be thwarted. And when we shall have escaped, it shall be not merely the leaving of something unwanted behind but the start of a new and exciting adventure for the human spirit.



A Human-Centered Schooling. Since each learner is unique and learns in relation to his uniqueness, we will need to change our schools in the next decade so that they will be human-centered instead of "lesson"-centered. This constitutes a complete change of direction. The individual human being, his growth and adequacy will become the goal of the teaching-learning process. We will think of adequacy in terms of his concept of self and his capacity to relate to others, rather than his ability to give back the lessons we have tried to teach. This constitutes a revolution in our affairs.—EARL C. KELLEY in *Educational Leadership*.

Revolution in Reading Instruction

By EDNA L. FURNESS

IF WE GLANCE OVER the pages of the history of reading instruction, we note several approaches to the teaching of reading during a century of eventful history. The purpose of this article is to indicate the several approaches, e.g., logical and psychological, which have chiefly shaped and are shaping the course of events in the world of reading, and to show by indirection new concepts which have resulted from a revolution and an evolution in reading methods.

Reading authorities of today are noting what Plato in his day recognized, namely, that words are made of letters. But we may ask, what are letters? They are nothing but signs, and per se have no meaning. Plato writes in his *Theaetetus*: "But none of these primeval elements [letters] can be defined; they can only be named, for they have nothing but a name. . . . The elements or letters . . . cannot be defined or known." Yet, as we shall see, the neat logic of the "alphabet and spelling method" of learning to read died hard.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The inscriptions on the National Archives Building in the nation's capital say "The Past Is Prologue" and "Study the Past." The historical development of any area in education is an essential preface to a full comprehension of current status. To assay the present, it is indeed necessary "to study the past." Insights into the current controversy over reading are likely to become deeper when we review the instructional patterns that have predominated during the past 100 years. This is the viewpoint of the author, who is professor of English education at the University of Wyoming and who has been a frequent contributor to The Clearing House.

The alphabet method, the a-b-c spelling method of learning to read, or the so-called logical method, which was used generally by the Greeks and Romans, was employed in the Middle Ages and still prevails in some parts of Western Europe. It was the first approach used in this country to teach boys and girls to read. Although there were many variations in teaching by the alphabet method, the following is typical: First, the child memorized the names of the letters and identified both the capital and the small forms. Spelling and pronouncing syllables of two letters followed; next came syllables of three letters; and finally monosyllabic words were presented. Larger units, including phrases, sentences, and stories, were then introduced.¹ Periodically, someone rediscovers this logical method, so-called, and uses it on children. He subsequently makes extravagant claims as to its merits and produces as proof of his claims some excellent readers, who would have little or no difficulty whatever the approach.

While the a-b-c method was holding full sway, forces here and abroad tending to strengthen education were going forward. One was the influence of that inspired tatterdemalion of pedagogy, Pestalozzi, who proclaimed, "We must psychologize education."² His method was to proceed from the easier to the more difficult, to begin with observation, to pass from observation to consciousness, from consciousness to speech. Another influence was that of a German pedagogue, Ickelsomer, who as early as 1854, advocated the use of sounds in place of the names of letters. Horace Mann, through his visits to Prussia, learned not only that the

¹ Paul Witty, *Reading in Modern Education*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1949, p. 5.

² Percival Chubb, *The Teaching of English in the Elementary and the Secondary School*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1929, p. xii.

a-b-c method was under attack but that a phonetic and word method was being advocated. We may point out here that the purely phonetic method proceeds by the same indirection as the alphabet method. In either case the student's discovery of the pronunciation of the whole word sets the conditions for learning to read.

In our country there was the influence of Cattell and other psychologists who reported their findings in the latter part of the nineteenth century. They delivered a damaging blow to the alphabet method and gave support to the movement already under way to revolutionize methods of teaching reading. The older notion had been that words are read by compounding the letters. That this is not the case was clearly demonstrated by the psychologists' findings that words can be read when there was not time to group all the letters.

Around 1900 there was heavy emphasis upon mastering the mechanics of word recognition and fluent oral reading. At the same time the forces tending toward reading as an analytical process were growing stronger. The expansion of the word method led to the development of the sentence method, which came into general use between 1870 and 1890, largely through George L. Farnham in the Binghamton, New York, public schools. Farnham, who has been called the earliest crusader for this new analytic movement, pointed out that the sentence rather than the word is the unit of thought, hence is the natural unit of reading.³ The word method led also to the story method. These analytic methods—word, sentence, story—were developed concurrently with phonic systems and were emphasized during the 1910's.

By way of digression, we may say that besides analyzing each sound separately, phonetics has to deal with the phenomena which accompany synthesis or the combina-

tion of sounds. Although a sentence may consist of a single word, and that word of a single vowel, sounds mostly occur only in combination with one another. The ordinary division into sentences and words is logical, not phonetic: we cannot mark off sentences and cut them into words until we know what they mean and are able to analyze them grammatically. But the logical division into sentences corresponds to some extent with the phonetic division into "breath groups," marked off by our inability to utter more than a certain number of syllables in succession without pausing to take breath.

Pestalozzi proclaimed, "We must psychologize education!" but he struck even more lustily a second note, "We must socialize education!" Colonel Parker took up the cry and so did Dr. John Dewey.⁴

By 1920 a revolt against the teaching of phonics and the story method was in full swing, and the approach was changing to reaching the attitudes and skills concerned with clear and rapid comprehension in silent reading. In the years immediately following 1918 we find that the school public had swung over to an entirely different emphasis, that of developing the utilitarian type of reading ability or skill in rapid comprehensive silent reading designed to prepare children to cope with the great mass of practical materials with which we were surrounded.⁵

By 1925 we had emerged into another era, in which the methods and materials were designed to develop the several different abilities needed in the various purposes for which reading is used in well-rounded living. Still another facet in the new approach to reading instruction was evident by 1937. Writers were then insisting that, in addition to perceiving words and grasping essential ideas, the proficient reader must reflect on their significance, interpret

³Nila B. Smith, *American Reading Instruction*. New York: Silver, Burdett, and Co., 1934, p. 140.

⁴Chubb, *loc. cit.*

⁵Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 185.

what is read, and grasp implications. In other words, the reflective side of reading was receiving emphasis.⁶

By 1948 concepts of the new reading approach were expanding still further. It was generally recognized that reading consists of a large number of skills which vary in their application, depending upon reading objective, type of material read, and values sought. Significance of attitudes in the pupil's interpretation of what is read, and the role of reading in personality development also received emphasis.⁷

The point I am trying to make is that reading instruction has been subject to a radical change and to an accelerated evolution, to an evolution as well as to a revolution. The truly logical approach evolved from the so-called logical approach, and in the course of time was psychologized and socialized. As long as the so-called logical approach to reading instruction prevailed, reading was considered a synthetic process. When education in general was psychologized and socialized, reading in particular came to be considered an analytic process; and the emphasis was no longer upon synthetic methods but upon analytic-synthetic methods.

The psychological impact on reading instruction, the evolution and revolution in reading instruction, are noticeable when

we set down basic concepts of the "new" approach to reading. Three of the concepts herein considered are under the heading of process; two, under the heading of product.

Process

1. The emphasis has shifted from method or instruction to concern for the individual and his welfare.

2. Analytic methods have been used with a better perspective of the reading process by less emphasis on the mechanics of reading and more emphasis on meaning and the broader objectives of education. In other words, reading is considered as a means to an end, rather than an end in itself.

3. Reading courses should receive emphasis from elementary school through high school. There is need for both a developmental and a remedial program—the first to develop more mature powers needed to cope with the complex learning activities, and the other to help those pupils who need further assistance with the skills to which they have been exposed.

Product

1. Emotional maturity, ability to perceive fine distinctions in sounds and shapes, and other developmental factors profoundly affect reading ability.

2. Reading achievement is affected by such environmental influences as home background, parents' interest in reading, limited educational and cultural advantages.

⁶Guy L. Bond and Miles A. Tinker, *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957. p. 28.

⁷*Ibid.*

Hence, the ideal teacher education program, as we visualize it, must guide the development of the prospective teacher and administrator along the lines suggested in the direction of wisdom, science, and art. The pressing problem of teacher education is not merely that of quantity. A fresh look at the quality of the education of the teacher is necessary if this training is to meet the needs of in-service educators as well as attract capable young adults to the profession.—ADMA D'HEURLE in *Progressive Education*.

Teacher in a-Musing Mood

By ANN ESS MORROW

THE LAST CHATTERING PUPIL lopes from the room, leaving me bewildered from sound cessation. Let no one say those pupils are passive like the verbs that they've been studying. No, indeed. It's all tense with them—verbs, children, and Oh Dear Me. That discussion was warm like a turned-on oven, so I logically breeze my U-ow. My fan is a journal—October, 1952. A bit of an oldie, just like me. But I'd been busily desk cleaning and had Jack Hornered this from the depths of the third right-hand drawer. I smile weakly at the opened page. "The Evaluation of Good Teaching." That's for me! What is it?

I lean on the first advisory statement with the limpness of celery long lodged in the sun: *Establish a sense of confidence in the child's own power.* Great Caesar, no. They mustn't know I'm being driven mad. Keep 'em guessing, I say—at least, till I flip my wig.

Remember each pupil is an individual, not a pattern. Thank heaven for that, I gasp, remembering Sally's wham on Paul's corpulent area of swat. I recall, too, that Carole had openly swigged from a bottle of alleged cough medicine in an effort to still a bark more persistent than that of any tree.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Sometimes we like the indoor sport of fussing with titles. This one, for instance. It might have been "Second Thoughts on First Principles in Pupil-Teacher Relations." That's what it's all about. But no! The author's title is better—the teacher is in a musing mood.

The writer, who has contributed other pieces to The Clearing House, is a teacher of English in the senior high school in Pontiac, Michigan.

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I wince a bit, but stagger on: *The teacher is at her best when warm with charm.* But what about her condition, I ask, when she is hot with Hadean wrath?

Develop a sense of values concerning the pupil's life problems. But in doing so, I must watch that profile to see that I don't blow a Pinocchio nose. Curiosity does horrible things to cats and nasal appendages.

Search for the evidence behind the opinion. Promptly I bulk my hulk to the hall and look for the missing pitchforks. And with good reason. Don't I remember that I'd prayed to heaven that I'd joined the Dodgers? It would have helped so. What a chance to play ball—eyeball—with that right visual organ of mine that Tom popped out so effectively with his slingshot shenanigans. The shy type, obviously. Call me a witch if you will—I'm only half the seer I was before. But even my Cyclopsic likeness is short spanned, the way I wish my waist were. No wonder my outlook is forever black. Merely a case of a left eye that *isn't* left. Next time I'll make a point to Follow the Gleam like Galahad, and then I'll find Sunny Boy with the mirror. It shouldn't prove too difficult for one of my gray matter and hairs—with thirty-four children in shady regions and but one Apollo minded.

Never attempt to get even with a pupil. I babble that to myself as I pick pretty posies that just aren't there. I want to go on living, don't I, and after all, my imagination only gazelle-sprints. Anyway, why be taut as you teach?

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Cultivate a dawn of understanding on the part of the students. But first, where's that seeing-eye dog?

Foster a positive attitude toward life and a distaste for its injustices. Everyone knows positively that only unfair parents do a four o'clock shadow job—A.M. variety.

Instill an optimism toward social progress. This is not difficult to do in a Howdy-Doody world of Dilly Dallies.

Give pupils experience with the arts on their own level. It's fun to watch adolescents express themselves by playing with their toes, especially if they are gaily pedicured—or have a surplus one or two.

Consider the individual as a whole. I do, and brother, is it hard to fill him up!

A good teacher must bring a fine blend of strength and delicacy to her job. Only a popeyed spinach swallower can muscle her way through a class today. Her delicacy must be such that when she resorts to the questionable practice of sarcasm, she refrains in all nobility from the biting variety.

Teeth marks, unlike daisies, tell. So does a strenuous chalk-dust day—unless one alerts oneself to chuckle possibilities. Truly a funny bone will rout a moan. Who cares if we grow rotund? We always did think in terms of round figures.



A Reappraisal of Mathematical Instruction

As for the majority of secondary-school students, they have a much greater need than ever before of a good working knowledge of arithmetic, simple algebra, and practical geometry—perhaps also of rudimentary statistical techniques—because these subjects are being used more and more extensively in business and industry as these activities are conducted in technically advanced countries. It is strange and rather puzzling that American educationists have been so slow to understand how urgently the general student needs mathematical instruction which will keep pace with the rapidly increasing technological demands of our society. The principle that school mathematics should be confined to "life-situations" has been applied, it seems to me, in a perverted and unrealistic fashion. In fact, an honest, contemporary survey of business and industrial requirements would undoubtedly show that in the United States the general student is almost as badly neglected in terms of his mathematical preparation for a career in business or industry as is the pre-university student for his higher studies in mathematics and the sciences.

At this time, when particular attention is being paid to the mathematical preparation of our future scientists, we should therefore try to balance whatever is done for them by an intelligent reappraisal of what is being done for the general student. The aim should be always to teach more mathematics to more students until the point is reached where every young person will learn enough to enjoy an unrestricted choice of a career within the limitations set by his native talents. . . . We may mention still another aspect of secondary-school training in mathematics which deserves more attention than it usually receives. This is the question of continuity of instruction. It seems to me important that the pre-university student in particular should have a continuous experience with mathematics, either pure or applied, throughout his secondary-school career. The alternative, which is generally followed in the United States, is to interrupt mathematical training at certain points, with unfortunate consequences for the student who later has to resume the study of mathematics in the university.—MARSHALL H. STONE in the *School Review*.

Teach Math in the Laboratory

By O. R. BARKDOLL

NEARLY EVERY DAY we read somewhere about a national weak spot in education—the math and science dilemma. Reams have been written on what needs to be done to bolster sagging science classes. I maintain the most urgent need is to remove the fear of failure in high-school math subjects. Then every potential scientist will not look askance at physics and chemistry because he is afraid he can't handle the mathematical computations. The majority of errors found in college calculus papers are not in the manipulations of the calculus power tools but in plain old arithmetic. Children are frequently asked on quiz programs, "Which school subject do you like best?" The universal answer is "Recess." For the question, "Which school class do you dislike most?" the ever-ready reply is, "Arithmetic"! So, before we can hope to build up high-school science enrollment, we must first bolster high-school algebra and plane geometry; then to remove the national fear of these two subjects, we must enrich arithmetic in the lower school.

"Give meaning to arithmetic concepts," we have heard repeated endless times. This

is exactly what Richard A. Mariani is attempting to do in his seventh- and eighth-grade classes at Elmwood Park, Illinois. He holds a mechanical engineering master of science degree, has taught at both the high-school and college levels, and has worked in industry, but he prefers this work in arithmetic-with junior-high pupils.

The laboratory has been considered essential for generations, so that the pupil could actually see the machine manipulations in physics and the chemical changes in chemistry. Therefore, it is beneficial for the math student to see for himself what happens to the volume when the base area of the solid is increased.

One or two pieces of the following equipment are usually found in the high-school plane geometry classroom. Below are the devices I counted in Mr. Mariani's math laboratory: Twelve large blackboard protractors; twelve large blackboard compasses; fifteen meter sticks; sixteen 12-inch steel, scale-drawing rulers—inches on one side, centimeters on the other side; four chalkboard rulers; plywood models of all the plane figures we encounter in geometry; wood, adjustable-joint models—parallelogram, trapezoid, pentagon, rhombus; the wood circle, cut into eight sectors, to show the proof for the area of a circle; puzzle triangle in plywood, to show that the three angles of a triangle add up to 180 degrees.

Solid geometry apparatus: Wood models, three complete sets of all the solid geometry volumes (these were made in the woodshop); three large globes.

Apparatus from the physics laboratory: Inside calipers; outside calipers; adjustable inclined plane; six types of wire and feeler gauges; one sealed glass container holding ball bearings, one-thousandth of an inch in diameter, which can be viewed only with

EDITOR'S NOTE

We remember a book, Calculus Made Easy, written by a professor at the University of London many years ago. The inscription on the frontispiece was, "What one fool can do, anybody can!" His point was that it is often possible to explain mathematics in simple terms. At any rate, use of the book reduced our fear of calculus. This is a major problem of science teachers, according to our author—to help students overcome their fear of mathematics. He is an educational consultant at Downers Grove, Illinois.

a microscope; two planimeters; dividers; blackboard slide rule; large wood calipers, blackboard model; eighteen small slide rules; twelve simplified trig tables for tool-workers.

Apparatus from the chemistry lab: Microscope; set of graduated test tubes; one liter (as a cube) with drain cock; three sets of laboratory weights; rain gauge; barometer; altimeter.

Arithmetic equipment: Seventeen different kinds of scales, from the small postal and pharmaceutical sizes, up to the pound variety used by the storekeepers; liquid volumes—all of the glass containers used in the dairy industry, from the half-pint cream bottle to the gallon jug; one cubic inch; one cubic foot; abacus.

Surveying equipment: One homemade plane transit; one surveyor's transit; one large clinometer; two small clinometers; leveling gauge; three different builder's levels; one water level.

Three engineering drawing sets. Meter dial sets from the public utilities—water, gas, electric. One sundial. Six "buzz boards." These boards contain all of the number symbols. The pupils challenge one another: one pupil touches a certain divisor with a wired stylus; his opponent then taps the second stylus on the quotient he selects. If correct, the completed electrical circuit will set the buzzer in action. Mr. Mariani made a separate buzz board for division practice, addition, subtraction, multiplication, decimal-point value, and formulas for plane and solid geometry. For solid geometry, volumes are cut from wood and wired; for plane geometry, the picture is shown. For the volume of a cylinder, one pupil touches the cylinder, the other touches the name plate holding a card " V equals πR squared H ." Since some pupils quickly memorize the place of the name plate, the teacher frequently shifts these cards to a different name-plate arrangement. The teacher introduces scale drawings to the class by having some pupil bring a blue-

print from home and then explain how the picture represents the new house. Mr. Mariani gives the rapid workers a sample of high school algebra by using an algebra workbook containing hundreds of easy problems, which the majority master on "experiment" days. He uses the solid geometry models to show how the value of each letter in the formula can be found. The class schedule is arranged so that all topics in the textbook are explained, yet there is one period a week for each pupil to work on an experimental demonstration project. Written reports on the projects are given, the same as is required in the science classes; this procedure gives the pupil practice in writing coherently and in organizing his thinking.

Many teachers are at loss for ways to accumulate this demonstration equipment and material. Obsolete official airline guides show how arithmetic is used for determining rates, traveling time, discounts; the maps are valuable as scale drawings, and many different kinds of graphs are illustrated. The regular bank forms should be used when the chapter on banking is under consideration. Valuable ideas come from the study of obsolete scientific equipment catalogues and tax guides. Mail order catalogues show how freight, express, and mail charges are determined.

Every week a new school building project is launched. To help bolster our national weak spot in education, it behooves every teacher of math and science to urge the administration to include a mathematics laboratory in the new building. We need long, narrow rooms, with blackboard space on all four sides (windows *above* the blackboard space along the outer wall) and blackboards at a suitable height for youngsters (not adults). The chalk tray should be close to the floor, just above the baseboard (not waist-high level for a grown-up). The writing area should extend as high as an adult can reach, so that the teacher can write instructions at the very top of the

board, with plenty of writing space below for the pupils to work. It is easy to spot errors quickly when problems are worked on the board. After visiting 2,000 schools, I have yet to find a room with anywhere nearly sufficient blackboard space. The ideal math laboratory can be made by the combining of two rooms. There should be one table-top sink for experiments involving weights, volumes, and specific gravity of various liquids. Two engineering drawing desks make possible accurate, complete scale drawings. The room should have black shades so that movies, slides, and 3-D viewing can be arranged quickly.

Sixteen years ago, a pupil in general math declared that he was ready to throw in the "towel": "I'll never understand the difference between square inches and cubic inches," he moaned. He was an A student in woodshop, so I assigned him a term paper: "Using $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch plywood, make an open box, with inside dimensions of 1 foot wide, 1 foot long, and 1 foot deep. Next, take the scrap lumber under the saws and jointers; pick out several long strips which can be trimmed down to make a square

prism, 1 inch on each side. Then saw these long, square strips into 1-inch lengths and cover the bottom of the cubical box with these blocks."

When he had completed the first layer across the bottom of the box, the exhibit was shown to the class; it didn't take them long to count the 144 square inches in one square foot.

Finally, I assigned this future pattern-maker the job of completely filling the open-top box with the 1-inch blocks. The large cube was about one-fourth filled before he caught on to the fact that he had quite a job ahead of him, cutting out 1,728 cubes of wood.

When completed, the masterpiece was placed on display in the classroom. The first time we heard the familiar wail, "How many inches in a cubic foot?" the "wood artist" ran up to the display shelf, grabbed his cubic foot, turned it upside down on the loafer's desk, spilled out the contents: "Now pick all of them up, and count out loud as you replace them, and you'll never forget the number of cubic inches in a cubic foot."



New Buildings and Old-Fashioned Maintenance

How much does it cost to maintain your school plant? Have you compared this cost with the cost of the same plant even ten years ago? Now compare your teaching cost of today with the cost for the same number of teachers ten years ago. Which has increased the faster?

Unless school buildings are properly maintained, they begin to deteriorate in a very short time.

There are cases on record where an entire auditorium ceiling of acoustical tile has been completely ruined by the custodian painting it with an oil base paint; all of the beautiful asphalt tile flooring in a new school building completely ruined in two years by the custodian using oil-soaked sweeping compound or oil mops, because they gave the floor a temporary nice sheen or gloss; and another where all of the chalkboards in a new school building were ruined by the custodian giv-

ing them a daily washing with soap and water. Yes, Mr. Administrator, the "Little Red Schoolhouse" with its Chick Sale outhouses, old hand-pump, tin bucket and gourd dipper, corn broom, and feather duster all left with the horse-and-buggy days and have been replaced with bright, new, beautiful buildings. These buildings are filled with modern equipment, affording the teachers and pupils an abundance of comfort and pleasure, and the administrator and school board myriads of headaches and heartaches.

But, Mr. Administrator, the wolf is at the door. How can we shoo him away? There seems to be only one logical answer, "Employ the best qualified maintenance personnel available, keep them properly trained and closely supervised, and get the most out of them for the taxpayer's money."—M. S. MARTIN in the *Texas Outlook*.

A Defense of the Less Gifted

By FRANCIS A. KLEINHENZ

BACKWARD OR BELOW-AVERAGE CHILDREN have been variously called "subnormal," "retarded," "mental defectives," "slow learners," and "the less gifted." Confusion over terminology merely reflects the rather widespread lack of co-ordinated endeavor to release the resources of less gifted children.

Teachers who would attempt to identify the less gifted child and define an adjusted school program for him are confronted with both frustration and necessity. The "subnormal," the "less gifted," have always been among us, but partly because of existing social and economic conditions many of these youngsters are today being pressed to extend their education through junior high school and even high school. This is highly commendable, but unfortunately school facilities are already strained and all participants in the total classroom situation must suffer unless suitable programs are organized exclusively for those who have difficulty in adjusting to the demands of even elementary academic material.

The presence of less gifted children in a regular classroom is frustrating for both the

teacher and the children, but frustration is often compounded when the teacher sets himself to the task of devising a special program which will fall within the capability limits of those of his charges who pace far behind the others in the class. Several school systems have pioneered in the study of programs tailored to fit the requirements of exceptional children. In the Cleveland, Ohio, school system, for example, many teachers have already dedicated their years to the service of less gifted children. The problems that remain, however, are many.

Teachers, unlike physicians, tend to associate problems with groups, despite the lip service, worshipfully given over the years, to the theoretician's injunction, "Attend to individual differences." Perhaps this tendency is natural, since the majority of the youngsters in our school population generally respond to classroom situations in ways that are similar and in accord with time-honored educational practice. But at some point a teacher will wonder what, in general, are the notable characteristics of children who are seemingly unable to measure up to the rigors of average educational demands. This wonderment should provide clues which will enable the teacher to trace the outlines of an adjusted program.

However, any attempt to define the behavior of a group in terms of common characteristics results inevitably in an abstraction. The abstraction then allows the teacher to make comfortable assumptions, chief among which, in this case, is that all children in any given group have similar resources for learning. Among the less gifted, certain common characteristics can be discerned, but lest the teacher erroneously identify his abstraction with the individual, he should always appreciate that variations in this, more than in any other

EDITOR'S NOTE

The tide that once ran strong toward the average and less-than-average student has ebbed. Now it is fashionable to center attention on the gifted and talented. And with good reason too! But all of us can't be up at the top of the class. Of course, the less gifted need no defense; they need educational service, just as all pupils do. But the job of the teacher who works with the least gifted is difficult but can be rewarding. So says the author, who is a teacher at the Thomas A. Edison Occupational School in Cleveland.

group, run to many extremes. It would almost seem that the further a group of children falls below what is accepted as average, the more pronounced become the differences of the individuals comprising the group. In support of this view, it might be noted that school systems which have promoted special class programs for exceptional children have consistently advocated small classes.

Logically, the abstraction seems the only suitable device to employ, both in identifying the less gifted child and in framing for him an adjusted program. Over the years, teachers have come to recognize several distinguishing characteristics (it should be understood that occasionally youngsters with noticeable organic disorders may also manifest these same characteristics):

(1) Intellectual and educational abilities are limited both quantitatively and qualitatively. The less gifted child generally lacks interest in many things, including, very often, his most immediate surroundings. He possesses limited attentive and retentive powers and, as a result, seldom demonstrates any degree of intellectual curiosity. His capacity to develop skills involving verbal facility is limited by a demonstrated inability to form and apply abstract ideas. Indeed, so awkward are the less gifted in grasping concepts necessary for abstraction that there is reasonable doubt whether many would ever show improvement in the verbal skills beyond the third- or fourth-grade level.

(2) Emotional and social maladjustments are manifested in a wide variety of responses, ranging all the way from extreme reticence and lack of confidence to pronounced aggressiveness. Lacking social skills, the majority of the less gifted show a marked appreciation for simple routines which specify in great detail the conduct expected of them. Where there is not a well-established school and classroom routine, some of these children tend to become potential discipline problems.

An error sometimes made is to assume that less gifted children possess in limited quantities the same aptitudes and abilities found in the average child. According to this view, slower students can be reached if the teacher merely limits the educational fare normally served in a regular classroom. Actually, some of these children will never develop a capacity to digest the normal, no matter how thin the portions are sliced. The solution lies not so much in limiting the quantity or amount as it does in completely altering the diet. Must one admit, therefore, that not every child is capable of being perfected? Not at all. But teachers of the less gifted must face the fact that not everyone is capable of the academic perfection normally expected of a regular class.

The problem of providing the proper amount and kind of instruction for less gifted children naturally involves a consideration of the teacher. Teachers of less gifted children should be specialists. Ideally they should have several years of in-service experience before stepping forth on their own. Such teachers should be versatile and able to adapt themselves to a variety of classroom situations. Helpful also would be a thorough grounding in several different subject-matter fields. If the specialist is a teacher of English, he must always be content to measure the progress of his pupils at the pace of a snail. He must sacrifice a desire to become a good teacher of English for the necessity of becoming a keen student of children. Indeed, there will be many class periods during which the teaching of English must give way to what might be called "enrichment activities." These would include such things as reading current magazines, enjoying filmstrips or movies, discussing school, neighborhood, and community affairs, playing games, or even reading stories to the children. The special teacher must also possess fortitude and confidence far in excess of that demanded of the teacher of average children, for though he may fail to teach English, he

should appreciate that his greatest success lies in helping his pupils master what for them are the difficult arts of living.

In any program directed toward the instruction of the less gifted, due regard must be given to a suitable system of grade or level classification. A sizable number of these students consistently turn in low scores on group and individual reading and intelligence tests. It would be a waste of time and energy and result only in frustrating defeat to force such children to follow a program containing liberal amounts of English, mathematics, science, and history. The school could make available to this group a wide variety of industrial arts courses, a well-organized visual education program, and other activities which promote social intercourse. On the other hand test scores will often reveal children whose achievement in the academic subjects is low but who indicate a potential for progress. These children might be encouraged to pursue a modified academic program, stressing courses in reading improvement, practical mathematics, and applied home

science. Conceivably, they could advance in these areas to the seventh- or eighth-grade level. These children would also be given every opportunity to develop whatever aptitudes they possess in manual arts. The determination of such aptitudes would require, of course, a well-organized guidance and counseling program.

One might find a program of this sort objectionable, for it does not seem to emphasize training specifically designed to prepare youngsters for later occupations. In our present complex industrial society, it may not be the responsibility of a school devoted to the teaching of the less gifted to prepare its students for the occupations. If the special school or class does its best, through constant reappraisal of its program and the methods used by its teachers to further that program, to provide its students with social skills, acceptable habits of personal conduct, and an elementary grasp of academic skills which will better enable them to take advantage of later occupational opportunities, then that school has given ample justification for its existence.



General Education and Teacher Education

There is agreement that general education must be provided for in any program of professional education. How large a segment of the total program should be given to general education is not yet answered uniformly by the professional schools. Nor has there been a uniform answer to the question of how the general education shall be provided, whether prior to professional training in a pre-professional program or concurrently. . . .

Philosophically, the question is still moot as to whether or not general education can be afforded within the professional program. Actually and historically, there is a well-developed trend to segregating it from professional training and requiring its completion prior to the specialized program. At present, architecture, teacher education, forestry, engineering, journalism, nursing and pharmacy merge the two into a single post-high school pro-

gram. Medicine, dentistry, law, osteopathy, veterinary medicine, library science, theology and others require completion of a general education program from two to four years prior to admission to the professional program.

Recent movements, even in teacher education, have featured increase in the general education requirements and in stipulating these as preprofessional requirements. In actual practice, this movement exceeds minimum stated requirements. As an illustration, one might note that the minimum requirement for admission to medical school is customarily three years of general education but at present approximately two-thirds of new medical school students have had four years. Influences stemming from the profession and from higher education generally have been significant in this trend.—ROBERT WHITE in *Educational Leadership*.

Automobiles and Pupil Adjustment

By SELBY SHARP

MANY OF THE PROBLEMS of education are caused by the secondary-school students who fail to make the proper school adjustment. The adequate adjustment of these students is attracting attention in all fields of education. Generally the reasons given for poor school adjustment are dissatisfaction with the school, desire for early marriage, financial considerations, and, less often, other miscellaneous reasons. These reasons are in approximate order of their frequency. They are also in direct relationship to the reasons given by students for dropping out of school. It is upon these reasons that most of the studies of poor school adjustment are made.

Excellent opportunities exist at the present time for solving some of these problems because of society's increasing attention to the role of the school in meeting the needs of our youth. However, society is thrusting upon the schools a growing pressure which appears to have gone nearly unnoticed. I am referring to the relatively unrestricted use of automobiles by our secondary-school students, which has never heretofore been considered as a factor of school adjustment. One thing is certain—more students are driving to our California secondary schools

every year in cars which they either own or have free access to use.

My first actual recognition of the possibility that driving a car to school might have some relationship to the actual adjustment of a student followed my assignment to the position of co-ordinator of attendance. Attendance irregularities, such as excessive absenteeism, were often noted for which the students could not offer acceptable reasons. In order to plan a remedial program with the individual students, the causes had to be isolated as nearly as possible. Many times it was observed that the students who drove to school were responsible for a greater proportion of these irregularities than their number would warrant. A second observation was that many of the students with attendance problems were also having difficulty in adjusting to other phases of school life. These observations led to a rather thorough study of the problem.

The Selma Union High School is in a raisin-growing center of the San Joaquin Valley in Fresno County. The semester chosen to gather the data for the actual study was the second semester of the 1954-55 school year. The school had an enrollment of 647 students at the end of the semester. Over half, or 347, were boys. Since boys drove to school more often than girls did, the study was restricted to the boys.

The male student population of the school was divided into two groups, frequent drivers and nondrivers. Four criteria were chosen to make the comparisons between the drivers and the nondrivers indicative of the school adjustment of the students: The first was a comparison of the number of dropouts between the frequent drivers and the nondrivers. The second was a comparison of the attendance of the two groups. The third was a comparison of the

EDITOR'S NOTE

Does ownership or use of automobiles by high-school students affect their scholastic record and school adjustment? If such proves to be the case, would you forbid pupils to drive to school in automobiles? Would you make use of an automobile conditional until an adequate school record was achieved? Or would you do nothing? The author reports on the first question. He is on the teaching staff at Union High School, Selma, California.

scholastic achievement (as measured by grades) between the two groups. The fourth was a comparison of the curriculums selected by the two groups.

During the semester studied, only twenty students dropped out of the high school. The smallness of the number of dropouts makes the evidence inconclusive, but from the ninety-eight students of the frequent-driver group 12.2 per cent dropped out while 87.8 per cent were retained. Only 3.2 per cent of the 249 nondrivers dropped out, leaving 96.8 per cent to complete the semester. These numbers, though based upon very small data, are most significant when we remember that each student who left school before graduation without re-entering another school is one that our educational system somehow missed.

The average number of partial days absent per student for the frequent driver group was 10.09. The average number of partial days absent per student for the non-driver group was 5.52, indicating that the nondriving student was present 4.57 more partial days than his frequent-driving classmate. The frequent-driver group averaged 8.41 full-day absences per student. The non-driver group averaged 6.59 full-day absences per student. The non-driver students thus maintained an average daily attendance of 1.82 days per student more than the frequent-driver students during the semester studied.

The scholastic achievement of the students was based upon a grade-point average, much as is used in many colleges and universities. Each grade was given a point value and these were converted into grade-point averages. The grade point averages of the total non-driver group exceeded the grade point average of the total frequent driver group by 0.47 grade point—or nearly one-half of a letter grade.

A second consideration of the scholastic achievement of the two groups of students would be the total number of subjects passed by each student. A student has to

pass an average of only five subjects a semester (including physical education) at the Selma Union High School in order to be graduated. Many of the students chose to take six subjects a semester. Another significant point is that a *D* is still a passing grade. The results showed that the non-drivers as a total group passed 0.31 more courses per student than did the frequent drivers as a group. Thus over the eight semesters, the average student who does not drive to school could be expected to take nearly two and one-half more semester courses than the average frequent driver.

Finally, in order to ascertain if there was a variance in the choice of curriculums by the two groups, the subjects offered by the school were grouped according to the curriculum to which each course belonged. The curriculums chosen by the nondrivers were consistently more academic inasmuch as the number of subjects selected per student was higher in the language arts, mathematics, and sciences. The fields most often chosen by the frequent drivers—as compared to the nondrivers—were industrial arts, music, agriculture, and business. The curriculums in which the choice of the two groups was nearly equal were physical education, social studies, cadets, and art.

During this initial survey several questions arose which, if answered, could possibly clarify the effect of the frequent use of automobiles upon school adjustment. Some questions which seemed to the investigator worthy of consideration by educators interested in this problem are as follows:

What is the effect of the frequent drivers upon the school adjustment of their non-driver companions in school? Does the desire to have access to the use of an automobile become an obsession to the non-driver student to such a degree that he does not participate adequately in his classwork and school activities? Among the student body as a whole, are the frequent drivers considered more popular and better adjusted than the nondrivers?

Would the results of a survey similar to this be the same if the groups were chosen by paired members of each group? The groups could be paired statistically on the basis of I.Q., age, socioeconomic status, or past achievement in school.

Would the attendance of nondrivers and frequent drivers be as different as they are in this survey if an immediate follow-up of each absence were made to determine if the absence were due to illness or other legal cause?

Would individual case studies of students known to be frequent drivers furnish a true indication as to whether their school adjustment was affected by driving cars to school?

A questionnaire type of survey might be valuable in determining many factors in student use of automobiles. Questions to be answered by students and parents could be based on the financial considerations of operating an automobile, reasons why the

student is allowed to drive an automobile to school, and the attitude which the parent has toward the use of an automobile for school. These questionnaires could be cross-examined to detect possible family conflicts arising from the student's use of the automobile which could hinder his school adjustment.

It is recognized that these findings are not conclusive. All of the problems of the young students in their relationship to both society and the school are more acute during the adolescent period than at any other time. The actual adjustment of a student to the school is a dynamic interaction of forces which are conditioned constantly by the innate personality of the individual and his changing environment. Only in recent times have many secondary school students become influenced by the relatively unrestricted use of an automobile as a part of this environment.



In Defense of Smaller High Schools

The smaller type high school has a definite and important place in the culture of our state. Following are some of the reasons why I think small schools should be preserved. (In definition let me say that accrediting is the only just eligibility for state aid. The State Department of Public Instruction should, and now does, decide whether a school is large enough to be accredited. I think of a smaller high school as one up to 150 pupils.)

The smaller high school of Kansas serves as a community center for students, patrons, and other well-wishers living in the locality of the school plant. Athletic events including practically all of the boys and girls of the community, PTA activities, home-talent plays, school assemblies by and for all of the students, commencement exercises and other class activities give much to the small community that is wholesome, desirable, and character building.

The smaller high school curriculum provides a good college preparatory course, a general education course, the standard business subjects, and vocal and instrumental music. The graduates have proved themselves to be well equipped for college

entrance, business careers, or entrance to post-high school trade schools.

The high school graduate should be well-rounded in the sciences and the humanities; it requires a minimum of four years to accomplish this result. This means that most courses in occupational areas should be postponed until after high school days are over. Vocational training should largely take place subsequent to high school, in post-high school trade schools and/or by industry. Some educators have maintained that pupils with below average mental ability need vocational attention in high school. I think, however, that the arts and sciences instruction should be so planned and given that all will profit from these courses. . . .

The future of America depends greatly upon public high school education. There is no substitute for the close and understanding teacher-pupil relationship existing in the smaller high schools. It gives the non-urban boy and girl the confidence and inspiration that makes possible the many fine successful citizens that we can point to who received their start in these smaller schools. . . .

JAMES A. WELLS in the *Kansas Teacher*.

Would You Be Interested in a Year of Study on Full Pay?

By EDGAR LOGAN

ARE YOU A HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHER interested in a year of study and leisure with full pay? Would you like to have travel expenses for yourself and family paid for a trip to New York City or New Haven, Connecticut? Would you enjoy having your tuition fees taken care of at either Yale or Columbia? Would you enjoy studying subjects of your own choice? Does the chance to explore exciting New York and beautiful New England appeal to you?

Twenty teachers in the United States will have all of these opportunities for the academic year 1958-59. They will be the lucky winners of the annual search for outstanding teachers by the John Hay Whitney Foundation. The men and women selected by the foundation will be drawn from the teaching fields of English, the social sciences, the natural and the physical sciences, and the fine arts. Ten of the John Hay Fellows will study at Columbia, and the other ten will study at Yale. Each will follow a schedule of courses best suited to his needs and interests, and each will have time and opportunity to share ideas and

experiences with his colleagues as well as with renowned teachers and scholars at neighboring universities in the East. Each fellow will be invited to participate in a year's special program of university graduate study designed to increase his knowledge of the humanistic tradition, broaden his outlook, and enrich his teaching.

Each John Hay Fellow receives a stipend equal to his school salary for the year in addition to full tuition costs and transportation expenses for himself and his dependents. He does no teaching during his term as a John Hay Fellow.

In announcing its selections each year, the foundation points out that it seeks teachers who are both eager to learn and eager to teach and who have shown a marked inclination to devote their careers to the special needs of secondary-school instruction. From the year's experience, it is hoped that each fellow will derive a broader vision of knowledge as a whole, an increased awareness of the interrelation of subject matters, and a refreshed conviction of the general human values which originally led him to direct his life's work toward the guidance of youth. His future role has been described by Dean Harry J. Carman, chairman of the humanities committee of the foundation, as one of "quiet, thoughtful leadership within his own community." Members of the committee who help to select the fellows for each year are William C. De Vane of Yale, Russell Lynes of *Harper's Magazine*, Thomas C. Mendenhall of Yale, Esther Raushenbush of Sarah Lawrence, Ordway Tead of the Board of Education of New York City, Cyril W. Woolcock of Hunter College High School,

EDITOR'S NOTE

This article tells how secondary-school teachers can apply for a John Hay Fellowship and why they might care to do so. The stipends are provided by Ambassador John Hay Whitney in honor of John Hay, the distinguished Secretary of State at the turn of the century. The author was a John Hay Fellow at Columbia University in 1956-57 and has now returned to his position at Denby High School, Detroit, Michigan.

and Harry J. Carman, dean emeritus, Columbia University.

In 1956-57 the teachers whom the program brought together were from four states—Michigan, North Carolina, Ohio, and Virginia. One hundred eight John Hay Fellows have returned to teaching positions in the five years that the program has been in operation. These fellows came from school systems in 32 selected states located in the Northwest, Middle West, South, and Northeast. So far the largest number of fellows have come from the state of Washington.

What do you have to do in order to apply for a John Hay Fellowship? First, you should find out from your school principal or superintendent whether your state is currently on the list from which the foundation is interested in receiving applications.

I was a John Hay Fellow from Detroit, Michigan, last year. I first became interested in the program four years ago when I was in Seattle as an exchange teacher. At that time, the state of Washington was on the list. However, since I had not lived and worked in Washington long enough, I was not eligible. Year before last, Michigan was placed on the list for the first time. I applied. I was lucky enough to win a year of study at Columbia University.

If you learn that your state is one of those "chosen" for next year, then you must be able to meet the following requirements: (1) Hold a minimum of a bachelor's degree from a recognized college or university; (2) have at least five years of high-school teaching experience, the most recent two of which shall have been in the present employing system; (3) be a permanent instructor who has classroom teaching at the high-school level for your major responsibility, and who regularly spends at least half of your assigned schooltime in actual classroom instruction; (4) have demonstrated the personal and professional qualifications which will enable you to profit by the year of study and to stimulate your colleagues

and students upon return to teaching; (5) be nominated to the foundation by the employing superintendent of schools or other authorized nominating official, who has had ample opportunity to become acquainted with your ability as a teacher of broad humanistic interests; (6) be not over forty-five years of age when application is made.

For purposes of these awards, teachers considered eligible are those teaching tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. In a four-year high school, teachers will be considered who spend part but not all of their time in ninth-grade instruction. Teachers in junior high schools and junior colleges are not eligible.

The applicant is expected to submit a proposed plan of study. Each fellow is expected to enlarge the range of his knowledge by study in areas of the humanities broadly related to his teaching subject, as well as to a more limited extent in that subject field itself.

Members of the foundation who help to select the twenty fellows each year have told me that they not only judge the applicant on his proposed plan of study but they also count heavily on the "intellectual autobiography" that he is asked to send in. Instead of merely relating the surface details of my life, I found that I had to do some soul searching in order to write this type of life story. Here are some of the questions that are not specified—but questions that I believe anyone needs to ask himself before he attempts to write this kind of autobiography: How did I get to be the kind of person that I am? Exactly when and why did I become interested in education? What books have I read that have had the greatest influence on me? Do I believe that a book can actually change a person's life? How did I find purpose in my pattern of living? Have I developed a "sustaining" philosophy to carry me over the rough spots of living and dying?

If you are anxious to go and learn and then to return to your school to share your

knowledge of the humanities; if you want to become a better teacher; if you are interested in growing intellectually, spiritually, and morally, may I suggest that you are the kind of person for whom the John Hay Whitney Foundation is looking. If you are selected, you can count on a wonderful year of study, sight-seeing, exchange of ideas, and leisure from the routine of the classroom. You'll never forget your year in New Haven or New York. You'll come back

to your teaching duties refreshed in body, spirit, and mind. You'll be grateful to John Hay (Jock) Whitney for founding the fellowships in honor of John Hay (Secretary of State under Presidents William McKinley and Theodore Roosevelt). You'll hope that you can live up to Dean Carman's conception of the role of the John Hay Fellow as "a person who takes a position of quiet, thoughtful leadership within his own community."

The Case for the Ballplayer

By EVERETT V. TRAYLOR

Adel, Iowa

"The season is over now, so the teachers don't care about my grades." This cold statement was voiced by one of the football players of a small high school at the close of the season.

Such a lamentable situation is prevalent in many of our school systems. After playing their hearts out for the honor of school and community and being carried over with grades during the ball season, our ball boys find that the teachers have a blatant lack of consistency in grading them. Admittedly many of our athletes aren't too high in the academic pursuits. Some of them also might even become a little raucous at times. But all feel quite badly when chastised for improper conduct.

In order to keep in proper perspective on this issue, we must remind ourselves that

our town is known by its high school team record, not by the academic records which the so-called "brains" of the school make. Our trophy cases boldly show this to be true.

And a further reminder as to the full importance of ballplayers: We know full well that the United States public can give the name of each player of each major league ball club, his weight, height, and what he eats for breakfast. At the same time, how many can name the members of the President's cabinet? Of course we know these are trivial comparisons and have little bearing on the public welfare, but think twice before you flunk a ballplayer, because he may turn out to be a national figure some day.

What is school for, anyway?

A High-School Principal Looks at **JUVENILE DELINQUENCY**

By ROBERT WAYNE CLARK

SCHOOLS GENERALLY recognize the function of training for good citizenship as their first obligation. In the discharge of this obligation, they proceed on two fronts at the same time: (1) They set up a school situation in which every encouragement is given for boys and girls to develop into good citizens and in which the fundamentals of good citizenship are specifically taught. (2) They establish a clear limit beyond which the conduct of their school citizens will not be tolerated.

A little careful thought will clearly demonstrate that these two parts of the program are equally important and that they are inseparable. There is considerable evidence of general community approval. It should be obvious that if this school program is to meet with success, the school must have the active support of the community in both of these lines of effort. It should be equally clear that a similar two-front attack upon citizenship training by the whole community is the one measure which can alleviate

the condition of juvenile delinquency which continues to threaten.

In part the community has accepted its obligation and has set about with vigor to combat unacceptable juvenile conduct. The efforts of the community to encourage the development of acceptable conduct have come to include programs in housing, health and welfare, recreation, human relations, fair employment practices, and general community planning. To these programs we devote much time, money, and dedicated effort and from our work in these areas much improvement in citizenship may ultimately be expected.

It is in regard to the second obligation that communities so often tragically fail. If any of the constructive measures we take are to yield the results for which we hope, we must accept the obligation of setting the standard of conduct which we expect and then insist upon acceptance and observance of this standard. This we do not do. The increasing tide of delinquency cannot be abated until we examine our failure at this point and correct our mistakes. Moreover, no school program can consistently maintain higher standards of juvenile conduct than the community sets and maintains. Only a brief examination is necessary to discover two major causes of our indecisive action:

In the first place, adults are not at all agreed on how far they are willing to condone juvenile misconduct. In some fashion, many of us are able to convince ourselves that a theft, a hijacking, an assault, or even a knifing or a shooting is a less serious offense if it is committed by a juvenile of tender years or one with a poor home back-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Can a school impose standards of conduct that are higher than the community as a whole is willing to accept and enforce? Does a school have a responsibility to recognize its successes and failures in combating the behavioral vagaries of its youth? How can a school develop a more decisive attitude toward the problem? A member of the Philadelphia public school system for thirty-five years, the author is principal of Thomas A. Edison High School and a member of the Mayor's Youth Services Board.

ground or, perhaps, by one who is "disturbed." We range in our opinions all the way from the primitive principle of an eye for an eye to the more enlightened one of turning the other cheek. We sway from towering rage to sweet forgiveness, frequently with no better reason than the occurrence of a speech or the appearance of a newspaper column. We are not sure how much we are willing to take from uncontrolled delinquents or how much of our liberty we are willing to surrender to them to avoid "retaliation."

When our own children are victims of juvenile excesses, we are completely illogical, if not downright cowardly. A mother tardily confides to the principal of a school that she has been giving her son an extra dime a day "for months" so that he could give it to "some big boys" who would "bother him if he doesn't pay." In a desperate effort to justify what she has done, she says she "doesn't like trouble. . . ." A sixteen-year-old boy who has had several dollars taken by a strong-arm gang declines to identify the culprits for fear of a beating. When the principal's assurance of protection convinces the boy, his mother forbids him to identify them. "The police won't do anything to them," she said, "and they'll just beat up my boy for telling. . . ." A parent refuses to prosecute a fourteen-year-old boy who has tried to rape his daughter because "the boy didn't really hurt her," and another refuses to prosecute when his very young daughter is molested because he "doesn't want his windows broken out." The parent who honestly and fearlessly faces his obligations to the community in cases like these is all too rare.

And even private business on occasion exhibits a well-nigh incomprehensible lack of moral perception and strength even in defense of itself. Three alert teachers in a junior high school surprise and apprehend four students in their middle teens as they systematically break the plate-glass windows of a nearby vacant showroom. The boys ap-

pear impressed and worried when the teachers talk with them about the seriousness of their conduct. The rental agency, when contacted, declines to take any notice of the offense: the insurance covers the loss and the windows were to be boarded up anyway. Four frightened boys quickly regain their composure and openly reproach the teachers for interrupting their vandalism.

A supervisor for the transportation system calls at a school office and requests permission to talk to four boys who have removed and broken light bulbs and switches from elevated trains. The switches are the ones used to turn on the red lights in the rear of the train to avoid rear-end collisions. The boys are summoned and admit their guilt. They are very clearly frightened. To the astonishment of both the principal and the boys, the supervisor indicates that the boys will not be arrested or even required to pay for the damage they admit doing because "it might be bad for our public relations!" The grinning boys return to their classes.

A thirteen-year-old boy whose mother "doesn't know what she is going to do with him" confesses the theft of 139 plastic toys from a five-and-ten. He is so impressed by the enormity of his offense that there is considerable promise that the school may be able to help mother straighten him out. A school counselor goes with him to talk with the store manager and to return the stolen toys. The manager with a careless wave of the hand says, "Oh, that's all right. It happens every day. Our insurance covers it."

None of this makes an attractive picture but it does make a pretty accurate one. Juveniles, being by nature what they are, will go as far as we permit them to go. If there is to be a limit at all, we must set it; but if we know where it should be, we have concealed that fact even from ourselves. Lacking the decision to set realistic standards for delinquents and lacking the willingness to finance adequately a good

program for dealing with their problems, we frequently waste our time and delude the community by profitless speculation about who is responsible for delinquency. Of course, each of us can find that it is someone or something else which really has the burden of responsibility.

Those who go beyond a general condemnation of the schools—which frequently takes the form of an uninformed assault upon some tiny part of the whole—roam the social scene at will fixing responsibility on one aspect or another: Parents don't accept responsibility, more homes are broken, more mothers are wage earners, world conditions are unsettled, father used to be in the army, there are slums, people move about the country more than they used to, there are not enough recreational facilities, the moral tone of the whole of society is deteriorating, many children are "disturbed," teen-agers are naturally non-conformists, and so on ad infinitum.

Such speculation is sometimes helpful in determining methods and direction in our over-all constructive program for improving citizenship, but it cannot meet the simple issue we are so reluctant to face. Discussion of these causes will not alter a single one of them. We must deal with the condition we face, not theorize about how it developed. The simple question we must face is: How far are we going to permit the delinquent to go in flouting the standards and the authority of the adult community? This indecision on our part, our reluctance to face this issue squarely, our failure to establish a line beyond which the delinquent may not go—this has taught the delinquent to laugh at us and to laugh at the morality and the authority which adults represent. Contemptuous laughter is contagious.

A fifteen year old in a school office has just admitted a theft, carefully planned, from the locker of a fellow student. He picks up his hat, flicks a bit of dust from his trousers, grins, and asks, "Do I go with

the cop?" "What do you think will happen to you, son?" the principal asks with concern. "Nothin'," replies the boy lightly. "Some guy talks and then my mother takes me home." The boy should know; this is his fourth experience.

"Have you ever been picked up by the police, son?" another boy is asked. "Yeh, six times," he replies without concern. "It don't mean nothin'. They never do nothin' to you."

"I'll have to report this offense to your probation officer, son," the principal says to a third boy. "Who? Oh, him?" responds the boy indulgently. "Go ahead."

It is hardly too much to say that the only juveniles who are deterred from misconduct by a healthy respect for the standards of adults are those who have never had contact, direct or indirect, with the agencies of our indecision.

Many school officials refer serious offenders to the law-enforcement authorities with the greatest reluctance because their experience has taught them that such a contact frequently confirms the offender in the belief that the school stands alone in its insistence upon high standards of conduct and that the general community will let him "get away with anything."

We could hardly hope to do a better job if we set conscientiously about the task of making juveniles treat the adult world with disrespect. However much we may accomplish by our long-term effort through better housing, human relations, and general social improvement, we cannot counteract the increasing tide of active delinquency until we face up squarely to our immediate obligation.

We must clearly see and clearly say that the offense against the community lies in the act committed—in the theft, the assault, the rape, the vandalism—not in the identity of the offender. If an act is wrong because it injures the community, then it is wrong for everybody—for the normal and the subnormal, the psychologically

sound and the disturbed, the bright and the stupid. If the act is wrong because it injures the community, then we must recognize ourselves as accessories to the offense if we ignore, placate, or surrender our rights to the offender for any reason we may selfishly think good.

And we must recognize clearly that neither our lawmakers nor our agencies of law enforcement can be held responsible for any laxity we think we detect; the laws and the enforcement of them reflect in general what we in the community want. When we establish a sufficiently formidable wall beyond which the delinquent shall not go, we take the first step in curbing the incipient delinquent and arresting undesirable tendencies in the, as yet, nondelinquent. The consequences of a wrong act may be brought to the offender with understanding and with sympathy, but they must be brought with firmness, with impressiveness, and with inescapable certainty. The establishment of a line beyond which juvenile misconduct will be met with inevitable punishment is not simple but it is eminently sound. Our youth have demonstrated amply that they will go as far as they are permitted to go. We must say how far that is. We must say it so clearly it cannot be

misunderstood and we must back up that stand with whatever penalties are required for effectiveness.

Perhaps one more word needs to be given to those who sympathize more deeply than wisely with the "disturbed" juvenile. A prominent Philadelphia psychiatrist was recently asked by one of a group of teachers, "Doctor, do you think that any boy or girl violates a regulation unless he is disturbed?" The psychiatrist considered for a moment, then replied without equivocation, "No, I don't." "Would you say, then," pursued the teacher, "that it is wrong to punish such an offender?" "By no means," replied the psychiatrist. "No matter what may be the cause of misconduct, the community must protect itself—and, incidentally, the offender—by setting up and enforcing necessary regulations."

It should be obvious that the lower our standard, the more we are willing to take from the juvenile delinquent, the greater will be the number of delinquents with whom we shall have to cope and the greater will be the over-all number of delinquents of all degrees of seriousness.

The delinquent will stop laughing at us as soon as we are sure we will tolerate his laughter no longer.

♦

Prestige of the Teacher. Unfortunately, teachers are often made fun of by cruel cartoonists and thoughtless motion picture and TV experts. Teachers are subject often to unfavorable conversation in the home and in social groups. Young people are aware of all of this and when somebody suggests that they consider teaching as a career too many of them are likely to smile and say: "Who wants to be a teacher?" But I repeat, prestige must first be established before an adequate supply of teachers will be available, and only the public can guarantee prestige.—H. CLAUDE HARDY in the *New York State Education*.

What Should Teachers Know About UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES?

By SISTER M. FLORA, I.H.M.

MANY OF US have no doubt experienced the joy of introducing children to countries far away, of helping them to see how environmental influences form different habits and customs but how, underneath all the diversity in the manner of living, these other members of the human family are fundamentally the same as we. But do we always pause to realize the significance of tragic differences behind the masks of smiling faces looking out at us from the pages of our geography books? We, in a country blessed abundantly with natural resources, wealth, and technical skill, should know more of the real problems of the underdeveloped areas of the world, problems not always realistically presented in pupils' texts. Rapid changes such as those in Africa should be followed closely in current articles, and our teaching background built from many different sources. From a sympathetic understanding developed in the hearts and minds of today's children will flow action in the years to come.

Here are a few facts we as teachers should know about the underdeveloped countries:

EDITOR'S NOTE

The world is divided into have and have-not nations economically. The have-nots are often described as underdeveloped countries, because their potential for economic self-sufficiency is largely unrealized. Politically, however, the haves and the have-nots are interdependent. What would our country do without allies in the have-not column? We'd be in a tight fix. That's why this article makes good sense. The author is on the staff at St. Mary Convent, Akron, Ohio.

These lands, found mainly in Africa, Asia, and Latin America, are the overpopulated countries containing 65 per cent of the world's people, producing 17 per cent of the world's income, and occupying about 50 per cent of the world's land. Their story is one of chronic mass poverty, hunger, disease, and drudgery without the technical know-how of developing their resources.

Overpopulation is one of the problems which may be due to lack of protein in the diet, for statistics and science seem to prove that the lower the protein intake, the higher the birth rate. More people mean less land for each, and since much of the land of these regions is arid and unproductive as it stands, the people are crowded in the inhabitable sections. Here in very unsanitary conditions they eke out a bare existence by working long hours with primitive equipment. Famines, floods, nutritional diseases, malaria, sleeping sickness, tuberculosis, and other diseases take their yearly toll of many lives and leave the life expectancy at thirty years, as compared with sixty-five in our United States.

The people themselves are not to blame for these conditions. They are as intelligent as any, are willing to work hard, and are anxious to better their conditions when they learn how, but most of them have had no opportunities for education and lack the technical knowledge necessary to make the most of what they have on hand. The many improvements in Pakistan and India, directed by a small per cent of educated natives aided by foreign technical advisers, prove that the people there are able and willing. But so much more must be done before the teeming millions can be properly fed, housed, and educated.

Meanwhile the spirit of unrest in these countries continues to grow. Coming more and more into contact with those who have higher standards of living, African people, for example, are awakening to the idea that conditions can be improved, that they could be self-governing, that the wealthy foreigners have been unjust. Through contact with religion and democracy, they are beginning to wonder why the whites don't "love their neighbor" and why "all men are not equal." To use the exact words of one African native: "When the Europeans came they had the Bible and we had the land. Now we have the Bible and they have the land."

The Communists are taking advantage of this growing spirit of unrest in the underdeveloped areas. They pose as beneficent brothers, making good use of situations to extend their ideas and following. They donate money, supply markets, promise security, and supply a sense of purpose in life through inculcation of Communist ideals. Now that they have China in their power, they are working for other parts of Asia, of Indonesia, of Africa, and of Latin America.

An article in *Newsweek* for November 28, 1955, cited evidence, vouched for by Western intelligence, to prove that uprisings in Africa have been instigated by natives who had been trained behind the Iron Curtain and sent back to work for the Communist cause. The ideology of communism is more appealing in backward countries, where ignorance of the truth is widespread. Poverty and hunger impel these people to accept help from whatever source it comes, since there is little else to lose. Fortunately the free countries of the world, possessed of means and technical know-how, have also come to the aid of their needy neighbors.

What have other countries been doing? The Colombo plan of England is providing technical assistance to the South and Southeast Asian countries which have joined. For an interesting account of assist-

ance given through the various agencies of the U.N. to the underdeveloped places of the world, read *New Life in Old Lands* by Kathleen McLaughlin, U.N. reporter. The F.O.A. (Foreign Operations Administration) of the United States, now the International Cooperation Administration, works with host governments in programs of nationwide governmental services, in agriculture, health, education, and other fields in Latin America, the Near East, Africa, South Asia, and the Far East. Long before government programs got under way, private organizations and institutions were showing the benefits of technical knowledge with peoples abroad and are still continuing to work in limited areas. These programs aim to show what can be done by local people using available resources and better techniques, to train local technicians who will be able to continue the work, and to contribute to economic development of the countries.

Much more must be done if we are to win in this latest phase of the cold war with communism. It is necessary that this fact be explained and taught to our children that they may understand the necessity for a world view of things and be willing to sacrifice a little that our many blessings be retained and shared with others.

In aiding these countries we are helping them to become strong partners in the free world. Mutual ties thus formed contribute to peace and progress. As their strength grows, trade increases, thus benefiting themselves, the United States, and the world. In the words of President Eisenhower, "Technical co-operation has proved itself as a practical and productive concept and as the surest and most economical way, over the long term, to speed the advance toward an expanding world economy and a higher general standard of living." He also described it as "our most effective countermeasure to Soviet propaganda and the best method by which to create the political and social stability essential to lasting peace."

It is time that we, as teachers, dedicate our energies and resources to a new kind of war against the forces of poverty and need, that we interest ourselves and our children in understanding and in serving the needs of the world.

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Pressure Groups—the Positive Side

The pressure group has some values that cannot be overlooked. It is a source of ideas, of suggestions for school improvement, of recommendations for changes in the amount and quality of school services, and of demands for the betterment of school personnel.

Pressure groups are often beneficial because they dynamically inject new thoughts, defend existing practices, or cause the modification of education to meet the changing needs of society. Active pressure groups are an essential part of democracy because they keep it from becoming an oligarchy run by the few . . . with vested interests.

There are educators who have applied the term "pressure group" with great disdain to any group that strongly advocates an idea opposed to a policy or practice of the administration. These groups are labeled as unrepresentative, biased, radical, conservative, selfish, bigoted, or ignorant, depending upon what it advocated. There are other groups with whom educators are glad to

cooperate, but they are seldom called "pressure groups," being composed of "farsighted, intelligent, progressive, liberal individuals who truly represent the people"—and are advocating what the administration believes is best.

The pressure groups to be accepted as a matter of course at the present time include:

1. Chamber of commerce for community projects.
2. Parent-teacher organizations in their honest zeal for a selected area within the whole school organization.
3. Veteran organizations for the use of buildings and equipment.
4. Farm groups in rural communities for letting school out early so the boys and girls can work on the farms during spring plowing and planting season.
5. Insurance groups for the protection of school property.

—C. BRADLEY PAGE in the *Phi Delta Kappan*



Tricks of the Trade



Edited by TED GORDON

BLACKBOARD BULLETIN: This goes on the blackboard for pupils in public speaking:

(1) Present an effective personal appearance, evincing poise, good grooming, and maturity.

(2) Be ready to stand up and state your position on controversial issues.

(3) Demonstrate that you are well informed on the issues of the day.

(4) Base opinions on evidence rather than on emotion.

—ANGELL MATHEWSON, Central High School, Trenton, New Jersey.

GRADING TIMESAVER: A timesaving device in averaging grades is to mark various activities in different colors in the roll book—oral work in green, written work in blue, tests in red, and so on. Add the ranks of each color separately and obtain the average from the three totals.—CAROL E. PRENTISS, Stearns High School, Millinocket, Maine.

AUDIO-VISUAL PLUS: When audio-visual equipment is not in use by teachers, the library itself can amplify A-V offerings. For example, quite often we tape-record a story from a picture book with sound effects. (Gumdrops dropped into a can produced the proper effect of falling blueberries for *Blueberries for Sal* by Robert McCloskey.) We record a phonograph record for musical background. When the story is played back, we show the pictures from the book at the same time.

We also make our own "sound movies." For example, a youngster brings in a series of color slides taken on a vacation in Mexico. We tape-record the narration by the pupil, add Mexican music for introduction and background, and co-ordinate

the pictures with the sound, thus creating a small movie. Warning: When we have the record player, the tape recorder, and the slide projector all in use at the same time, we sometimes blow a fuse!—KATHRYN S. HOWIE, Librarian, Greenville Elementary School, Wilmington, Delaware.

TAPE CONQUERS ALL: Once again, tape recording can come to the rescue. With a little library of typical classroom, club, athletic, and other activities, the administrator can have readily at hand, for his own and for teacher use, samples for the parent-teacher conference, for the service club program, for orientation of new teachers, for a personal "refresher" on what's going on in school.

FAMOUS QUOTATIONS: Occasionally place on the blackboard or have ready on large poster paper, short squibs, jokes, or famous quotations in a foreign language (including shorthand!) as a challenging "appetizer" for students to work out before the bell rings or class begins.

EXTRA CREDIT: At the end of each mathematics test, I use an "extra credit" problem taken from an old (1799) math book. The wording is unusual and the problems are much harder as most of them do not come out even. It is a real challenge.—NEIL L. GIBBINS, Lakewood, Ohio.



EDITOR'S NOTE: Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Brief, original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE.

Functions of the Junior High

Philadelphia Principals Discuss Needs of Adolescents and How Junior High Schools Try to Meet These Needs

By CLAYTON E. BUELL

"WHAT IS THE PURPOSE of the junior high schools? Why are they different from the senior high schools and the elementary schools?" Many people ask these questions.

The answers must be available to both teachers and parents. Some teachers have heard very little about the distinct purposes of the junior high school, and many parents have heard less or even nothing at all. If they evaluate it in terms of the schools they do know—schools organized for a different purpose—the junior high school will not be shown to advantage. The purposes of the junior high school must be understood, and the effectiveness of the school must then be judged in terms of those purposes.

It is even more important that the teachers in the junior high schools understand what it is that their school is trying to do. Because of the high turnover of teaching

staff, a study of the distinct nature and purposes must be continuous. Because the college preparation of many teachers for junior high school was aimed broadly at secondary schools and because they gave relatively little study to junior high schools in particular, their understanding of this organization is often superficial.

The group of twenty-eight principals of the Philadelphia junior high schools decided a few years ago to do something about this situation. A representative committee planned a study program designed to explain the purpose of the junior high schools.

The junior high schools are planned for pupils in their early adolescence. The group believes that because they are designed for a specific age group, they must necessarily be different from schools designed for other age groups. Moreover, they must consider both the characteristics and the needs of the pupils if they are to serve most satisfactorily. What are the characteristics of the twelve- to fifteen-year-olds? Are these pupils different from their brothers and sisters in the elementary schools and the senior high schools? Have the pupils changed? Will they change again about the time they reach senior high school?

The answer is, in general, "Yes." Although many characteristics carry on throughout their stay through the twelve grades, the emphasis on some of them in junior high school is quite different. The principals' group, in the study guide they developed,¹ points out the following char-

EDITOR'S NOTE

The most important development in American secondary education in the last thirty-five years has been the growing acceptance of the junior-high-school type of organization. The public schools of Philadelphia have taken the lead in concentrating on improving the educational program and pupil services in junior high schools. Their publication, "Assignment: Junior High School," is one illustration and this article is another. The author, a member of The Clearing House editorial board, is assistant to the associate superintendent, Philadelphia public schools.

¹ "What Are Adolescents Like?" Curriculum Office, Philadelphia Public Schools, 1954.

acteristics that are particularly emphasized during the early adolescent period.

Characteristics of Early Adolescents

"Our adolescents are growing physically, some rapidly and often unevenly, some slowly and continuously." Increased activity of the sex glands causes changes that disturb every child to some degree. These often cause the pupil to be self-conscious. Rapid physical growth may create awkwardness and clumsiness. The pupils are like an adult in some ways, yet they are not ready to assume adult responsibilities.

"Many of our adolescents are passing through a stormy period of emotional behavior." They have a strong urge to be grown up, yet they slip back into childish ways. They are victims of the new confusing urges that come with adolescence. They are unpredictable.

"Our adolescents are making their way now with their peers of both sexes." The desire to be one of the crowd is one of the strongest influences in their lives. In outward appearance they want to be alike; inwardly, they are individualistic. Group life becomes more and more important. The gang spirit is strong and the group develops its own standards and pressures.

"Our adolescents are striving to become more self-reliant and independent." The process of becoming an adult must be a gradual one. Adolescence is a time of growing from a child to an adult. Little by little the adolescent tries to cut the apron strings that tie him to his childhood. Sometimes he cuts himself off too soon. Mistakes are made. But the process itself is necessary and cannot be discouraged. Adult guidance helps these youngsters to build proper values.

"Our adolescents are beginning to think of how they are going to earn a living." They are beginning to realize the fact that they need money to do the things they now want to do. They are thinking about present needs and, in some measure, about

adult needs. They begin to consider their life's work. They choose broad areas of careers. And they begin to see the need for preparing for them.

They are "searching for answers in politics, religion, sex, and social standards." They are trying to see the meaning of life. Each must discover it for himself—he will not accept ready-made adult answers as he once did. In the process of becoming adults they must try out, question, argue, test, as they find answers in their own way. Mistakes they will make, and from them learn. The result of all this is a code of behavior, standards, ideals that will be accepted by them.

Needs of All

The principals' group states further that the pupils are somewhat different because certain characteristics have been sharpened at this time and therefore their needs will be different. "All persons have certain *basic needs* that must be satisfied if they are to be well-adjusted people. Everyone must: (1) achieve a sense of security; (2) develop a strong healthy body; (3) develop mental abilities; and (4) develop acceptable social behavior. Because we live in America, we must satisfy these basic needs in keeping with our democratic society. Every American needs: (1) to develop a respect for human dignity and personal worth; (2) to develop the ability to work co-operatively to help solve group problems; (3) to develop his abilities to his fullest extent; and (4) to develop an understanding and an appreciation of our democratic way of life as the best way to achieve our basic goals."²

Junior High School Based on Needs of Early Adolescents

However, it is upon the next group of needs that the junior high school is based. These needs must be satisfied in a manner that considers the characteristics of the

²"Our Junior High Schools—What Are They Like?" Curriculum Office, Philadelphia Public Schools, 1956.

junior-high-school pupil. To disregard the characteristics of this age group is to invite failure. "Because the pupils in our junior high schools are in their *early adolescence*, their basic and societal needs are unique to this stage of development." These eight needs of the early adolescents are very important.

Need #1. To continue to acquire and maintain fundamental knowledge, attitudes, appreciations, and skills. It is impossible for the pupils to have acquired by this time the fundamental knowledge, attitudes, appreciations, and skills that they need—they are not old enough. They are still developing. Their capacities are increasing. Their capabilities are greater. The junior high schools must build upon the fundamentals begun in elementary schools, or else the pupils will be shortchanged. A continuing program in the language arts, in social studies, in arithmetic, must be provided in junior high to maintain the basic skills and to acquire new ones that the pupil is now capable of developing.

Need #2. To attain the social skills required for living in a democracy. Pupils learn skills through repeated practice while trying to improve. They are given many chances to practice social skills in the junior high school while associating with pupils their own age or close to it. Because of their desire to be accepted by their agemates, they are highly motivated to acquire social skills that will make them acceptable. This practice in social skills must take place at this age, either in school or out of school. When sufficient opportunities are given in the junior high school they can be directed into worth-while avenues. If the school cannot provide an answer to this basic need, early adolescents will *create* situations that will enable them to prove their worth in the group. It is, of course, better to provide the needed opportunities in school, where pupils can be guided, than to take a chance on the groupings that may be formed on the streets and in lounging spots in re-

sponse to this need which cannot be curbed.

Need #3. To adjust to physical, emotional, and social changes and growth. For many, adolescence is a time of uneven and erratic growth. These changes in the physical, mental, emotional, and social characteristics are new and, because they may not be understood by the pupil, cause tension and conflict. The boy wonders if he is normal. Will he be a freak? The junior high school provides guidance, physical activity, knowledge concerning what is to be expected at this time, physical examinations, health information, and reassurance that the pupil will develop to be a normal adult. Teachers who understand what causes the unpredictable behavior of the junior-high-school pupil recognize that many unacceptable actions are completely unpremeditated and result from a subconscious sense of unrest. They discourage the action but do not overemphasize its importance. They try to help the pupil avoid unfortunate outbursts but accept the fact that to learn, a pupil must be *permitted* to make some mistakes. For "if there are no mistakes, there is no learning." Pupils need to know that uneven growth is normal and that they may be disturbed emotionally while going through this fast growth. They need sympathetic understanding from teachers who are their friends.

Need #4. To establish satisfying relationships with boys and girls of his own age. The junior high schools recognize that in adolescents the urge to be accepted by others of their own age has been sharpened greatly. Now, they *must* belong to the group. The group may be organized in the school or it may be outside of school—but there must be groups, and the adolescent must be accepted if he is to develop normally. Many school-wide activities and small group organizations and committees give pupils opportunities to work together and to play together. Here the adolescent learns to do his share in an important job and becomes one of the crowd.

Need #5. To grow in understanding of self. At this age the pupil is becoming more realistic about evaluating and recognizing his own strengths and weaknesses, his achievements, and his potentials. A well-developed guidance program helps him discover his capabilities, his aptitudes, and his interests. Tests and wide opportunities for trying out new things both help him know himself. The junior high school guarantees a variety of activities, which makes self-discovery possible.

Need #6. To establish new relationships with family and other adults. Young adolescents must begin to cut their apron strings; they are beginning to leave their childhood behind and are now on their way to becoming self-sufficient adults. But the shift cannot be made all at once; it will take place gradually, over a period of years. The change from being adult-directed to self-directed occurs unevenly—sometimes the pupil wants and needs direction; sometimes he will have no part of it, even though he may need it badly. He wants to be an adult, even though he can't carry out the responsibilities. The junior high schools provide many opportunities where pupils may stand on their own feet. And they learn to accept the results of their wrong decisions. The decisions gradually become more and more important. But pupils have learned to make decisions by making decisions, and accepting the responsibility for the decision made. Meanwhile, teachers help to soften the fall where necessary. Pupils also learn about adult life and adult responsibilities in many areas in the junior high school. In health, homemaking, social studies, home room, mathematics, industrial arts, commerce, and other areas pupils discuss and try out activities that relate to adult life.

Need #7. To plan and prepare for a career. In junior high school, pupils learn about many careers, explore their capabilities and interests through the varied activi-

ties provided in the school, learn how their abilities relate to the world of work and preparation for it, discover what abilities they have, and make educational choices that are dependent upon broad areas of work. Both exploration and guidance are important aspects of the junior high school program.

Need #8. To build a personal system of standards and values. As adolescents gradually throw off the cloak of adult direction, they also discount adult advice. They now want to find out for themselves. The time for blind acceptance of adult values is past. At the same time, teen-agers become more sensitive to ideals and ethical values. Now they search for answers themselves. They build up their own values by questioning, by testing, by arguing, by rebelling, by selecting. The junior high school provides a healthy atmosphere wherein this growth process can take place—because, take place it will. And teachers in junior high school realize that the process is important and that it must take place. They are therefore sympathetic and understanding while guiding carefully and unobtrusively the development of a personal code of behavior and socially acceptable standards in each pupil.

Healthy Atmosphere Provided for Necessary Development

According to the junior high school principals group of Philadelphia, the junior high school (a healthy atmosphere in which young adolescents can be helped to develop naturally, and with intelligent guidance, into intelligent, social human beings) recognizes that certain needs must be met by its pupils, either in school or outside of school. It knows that the needs must be answered by each pupil. It therefore seeks to provide an atmosphere in which young adolescents, within a narrow age span, can be helped to develop normally, with intelligent guidance, into responsible, contributing citizens of a democracy.

Bonds of Understanding in PUBLIC RELATIONS

By
M. DALE BAUGHMAN

TO A LARGE EXTENT good public relations appear only in books and magazine articles. Transformation of fertile ideas into action still remains to be done in far too many cases. Anyone interested in public-relations devices for our schools can find in almost any book on school administration a short chapter or at least a section of a chapter on standard practices.

There is little doubt that the following techniques, which do not appear in the standard treatment of public relations, are powerful influences in creating a highly favorable opinion of the school in the minds of parents, pupils, and citizens.

How much do your pupils know about the history of schools, their development, their changing purposes, and the methods of financing? In few instances have teachers or administrators realized that there is much to be gained in an organized attempt to present a true picture of the institution in which a pupil may spend as much as one-fourth of his life span.

1. Teach about the schools in the schools.

Are your pupils fully conscious of their daily progress in total growth? Far too few efforts in the classroom are directed at the

establishment in the minds of pupils of definite awareness that they have learned something each class period. If teachers are unable to point out definite achievement, then something is wrong; if they can and do, pupils are more apt to express feelings of satisfaction and progress to parents, friends, and relatives. When this happens, your public relations are enhanced.

2. Summarize each daily learning period.

How much do your bus drivers know about the school attended by their passengers? Rare is the administrator who takes his bus drivers into his confidence by informing them adequately about such things as new administrative practices, curriculum changes, extracurricular finances, and office procedures. While it is true that some bus drivers may not fully comprehend the attempted interpretation, they will at least be flattered by the attention and consequently will become better public-relations agents for the school. Who would deny that an informed bus driver is not a more effective agent of interpretation than one who knows not? This suggestion may well apply to other nonteaching staff personnel; however, the critical need for informed bus drivers stems from the fact that often the bus driver is the major or only avenue of information between home and school.

3. Take your bus drivers into your confidence by giving them the information they need.

How do new members of the school community learn about your school? It is expected that new families in a community are quite concerned about the change which faces their youngsters. The parents may seek information from neighbors,

EDITOR'S NOTE

Here are some offbeat approaches to achieving good public relations in a public school. As the author implies, you can't theorize about public relations and it does no good to quote the experts. It has just got to be successful or it's not worth the effort. He is assistant professor of education at the University of Illinois, Urbana.

through their own initiative by calling or visiting the school, or through reading the local or school paper. If you are in a community where "Welcome Wagon" services exist, why not prepare a word picture of your school for distribution to new residents by the "Welcome Wagon" hostess? In the absence of such a community goodwill service, you may think of other ways to get this vital information to new families.

4. Introduce new residents to your school through distribution of an information sheet.

How sufficient are your methods of recognizing unusual pupil accomplishments? Some administrators and teachers serve this adolescent need incidentally by a pat on the back or the casual spoken word when they think of it. Others are more conscious of the need for a systematic approach to this obligation. Short letters to the parents and/or the pupils commending achievements of the pupil or the joint accomplishments of pupil and parent are used to good advantage. Another approach is the clipping of news items describing pupil accomplishment and mailing them to the home.

5. Officially and systematically recognize unusual pupil achievement.

How do you arrange conferences with Dads in attempting to help pupils with problems? By far the most common method, as well as perhaps the most convenient one for the school, is that of asking Dad to leave his work and come to school. Although such a method is usually indicated by the circumstances, there may be times when you could profitably aid public relations

by visiting Dad on the job. Some administrators say that the inconvenience and the time spent may be offset by the addition of a new enthusiastic agent of public relations.

6. Sometimes, hold your conferences with Dad on his job.

What effect does your reception room have on those waiting to see school personnel? The writer has been in school office reception rooms ranging in atmosphere from that of the drab bus station to that of the most proper parlor. While the latter is not always feasible or desirable, certainly the former is inexcusable. Parents, pupils, citizens, professional people, and salesmen alike will have a more favorable impression of your school if the reception room has somewhat the appearance and atmosphere of restfulness, comfort, and convenience. The impression can be created by an inexpensive floor covering, one or two small tables with lamps, pictures, green plants, and appropriate reading matter. For the finishing touch, add the pleasant voice and smile of a friendly receptionist.

7. Make your reception room a pleasant place in which to wait.

Imaginative teachers and administrators will think of other similar techniques for creating the good will of all people toward their schools. The key to success is to be found in the use of many different mediums and devices for informing and interpreting.

Many people still plant four seeds to the hill, as did the Indians: one for the black-bird, one for the crow, one for the cut-worm, and one to grow.



Educators, however, are not mere messenger boys or service-station attendants for society. They should question and re-examine old and new values. Surely, one of the basic contributions of the good teacher should be to create a spirit of honest inquiry and reflection in their students. This process certainly should begin in the high school and be continued through college.—MARK STARR in the *North Central Association Quarterly*.

ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOR: Whose Fault?

By JOSEPH RESNICK

CONSIDERABLE CONTROVERSY exists as to where blame should be placed for a child's antisocial behavior. There are those who would stress that the child is primarily at fault. Others place the responsibility on the parents. Consideration has also been given to the school, the neighborhood, and heredity as influencing factors.

The statement that there are no delinquent children, only delinquent parents, is open to serious question. This view assumes that a parent could do better if he merely decided to do so. Such an assumption appears unwarranted. Can we take for granted that the parent knows what is best and can apply his knowledge? The circumstances in which the parent lived as a child and as a youth have served to mold him so that his own fears and insecurities become a part of him. Actually society as a whole is responsible for delinquent behavior since both the parent and the child are its products. The parent who has suffered repeated failure as a child and has been embarrassed because of the unkind

remarks of his classmates as a result of being oversized for grade placement could hardly be expected to look enthusiastically at the school situation and urge his own child to attend. Such a parent might also think of educators as a prisoner might regard a warden, as one who assigns unpleasant and uninteresting tasks.

Parents usually do the best they know how at the time. While their methods may not be what the teacher feels he would have followed, nevertheless the procedure decided upon is what the parents felt needed to be done to meet the problem.

In every adult the cumulated incidents of his earlier life influence present conduct and behavior. The individual against whom, in childhood, society has discriminated because of color, religion, nature of his birth, extreme poverty, physical defects, or similar factors over which he has had no control, bears within himself a wound or scar which has never quite healed. These basic elements reveal their presence by rendering the person more sensitive to criticism, by giving him a tendency at times to become easily discouraged, and by increasing the speed with which he reacts to situations related to many youthful experiences, thus revealing anxiety. A knowledge of the factors which affect the adult's behavior serves to disclose the cause for present conduct and draws aside the curtain which hides the reason for undesirable behavior. When the cause for wrong behavior is known, sympathetic understanding usually replaces a desire to blame the individual.

If a child feels loved and wanted in his home, and recognizes that his parents care

EDITOR'S NOTE

Do you believe that most misbehavior arising in the classroom may be regarded as normal in nature? If you do, then do you believe that antisocial behavior develops because the pupil lacks techniques to solve successfully his personal problems? These questions make us ponder. Do they make you think too? We suppose that's the intention of the author, in eliminating the question marks. He is psychological consultant to the public schools in Indianapolis, Indiana.

for each other, errors in child rearing usually do not create emotionally disturbed behavior which is serious. Similar mistakes in child training, without the common bond of mutual love, could arouse feelings of insecurity, with the accompanying accumulation of nervous tension which might find a release in various ways, such as fighting, stealing, tearing books, or carving a desk. The child tends to discount the incidents which are unpleasant if he feels that beneath the firmness is someone who is sympathetic and vitally interested.

Vivian, a girl of twelve, came to the writer's attention because of her slow learning ability. The results of an intelligence test showed an I.Q. of 70; yet the child was pleasant and well adjusted to peers and adults. A conference with the mother, who had not finished elementary school, indicated that the home was stable and that treatment of the daughter involved an obvious showing of love and affection but also, at times, considerable firmness. Corporal punishment was administered when

the mother felt it was needed. Sending the child to bed early when she misbehaved was a part of the disciplinary procedure. Apparently the child was making allowances for her mother's treatment and felt no bitterness, as indicated by her remark, "I really get it when I don't mind." In the school, the child was given classwork on her level of ability and related to her daily life experiences in order to arouse interest and effort. The practical nature of the school program had also served to bring achievement and praise. This child showed that when personality needs are adequately met, the result is usually a happy, well-adjusted individual.

Most misbehavior arising in the classroom may be regarded as normal in nature. Usually the reason for the misconduct can be disclosed in conferences with the child regarding his classwork, interests, and home life. Where antisocial behavior develops, it means that the child lacks techniques which will enable him to solve successfully his personal problems.



Retired to Poverty

America's retired teachers are among our forgotten people. Many are eking out the barest existence in "the borderland of poverty."

This is the finding of the National Retired Teachers Association, which recently surveyed pension programs in the various states.

The study discloses that pension plans range from "generous" to "niggardly." Not only do programs differ greatly from state to state, but sometimes there are various programs operating within a state. Tennessee, for example, has eight different retirement systems for teachers.

Thirteen states do not provide minimum pensions for teachers who retired five or more years ago. "Regrettably," the NRTA notes, "active people . . . have given little thought to the condition of the wretched among retirees."

Among the minimum pensions that have been established for teachers now in service:

California: \$170 a month, Delaware: \$900 a year, Florida: \$1,200 a year, Michigan: \$40 annually for each year of service, West Virginia: \$30 annually for each year of service, Kentucky: \$640 a year, Montana, Tennessee, and Utah: \$600 a year.

But the biggest shocker came when the NRTA posed this question: "What percentage of retirees in your state are poverty-stricken?"

A number of respondents—state education associations and state retirement systems—said they could not determine the percentage. (Some asked, "What is the measure of poverty?") But the few answers that were given added up to a generally grim situation: Pennsylvania: 40 per cent poverty-stricken. South Carolina, Utah, and Washington: 20 per cent. New Jersey: 5 per cent.

Texas did not bother to give a percentage. Its one word answer was: "Most."—From the *Scholastic Teacher*.

Justice Via the Student Court

By CHARLES A. TONSOR

JUSTICE IS USUALLY REPRESENTED as blinded by a bandage across the eyes. But is it blind? That question is important for students elected to student courts. On what does a student court rely when passing on a case brought before it? What objectives does the court have in mind in reaching a decision on the case brought before it? These two questions had to be answered a quarter of a century ago when the student court of Grover Cleveland High School was organized.

As his task was then organized, a student judge had as his first reliance his feeling of what constituted justice. It was agreed that he was always obligated to be just, no matter what the nature and reputation of the offender or his social, athletic, or scholastic standing. He had to admit all were equal before the law. His second obligation, as Portia indicated in her plea in the *Merchant of Venice*, was the quality of mercy, the need for making allowances, for regarding extenuating circumstances. His third obligation was to hear both sides, ques-

tioning each to clear inconsistencies or contradictions, summoning witnesses if needed. His fourth obligation was to the school. His decisions had to be such as would establish order and decorum in the complex life of the school.

The second question came in for similar consideration. It was finally agreed that a student court had three fundamental objectives in settling a case: (1) To deter the offender from repeating the offense. (2) To punish the offender for the offense committed. (3) To rehabilitate the offender. The second involves to some extent the first and third, but it has a different slant—restitution and the protection of the school society. During the study of the first item, it was established that criminologists agree that prevention is the best deterrent and with it the certainty of detection and immediacy of the punishment. That set the foundation for the action of the court. Prevention and detection, of course, are beyond the jurisdiction of the court, since it cannot act until the offender has been brought before it.

But what of the judge? What was there to be considered about him? First, he had to be on his guard lest he do, as most adolescents do, favor his friends because "he knows they are good" and come down heavily on those unknown to him. Impartiality is not easy for an adolescent, but is necessary if the court is to win the respect of the student body.

Second, he must receive some hint as to the nature of offenses. Unless the student council has set down a code or a series of school rules in conjunction with representatives of the faculty, the judge has little to guide him in determining the offense and its importance in the life of the school. This led to the adoption of the Grover Cleveland

EDITOR'S NOTE

To have or not to have a student court? That is the question. And it's highly controversial. Yet one thing is certain: The student court's responsibility has to be defined carefully because the court cannot be expected to do the disciplinary chores of the principal and faculty. Here is a reasoned statement that may allay and explain away some of the controversy. The author, a regular contributor to The Clearing House, was for years the principal of Grover Cleveland High School in New York City. He is now secretary of Phi Beta Kappa Alumni in New York.

High School Code, a few basic principles governing student conduct. Up to the present there has been no need for changes in the code since it deals with fundamentals, rather than particulars. The judge's task is to relate the particular offense to one of the fundamental principles of the code.

Third, he must receive some information as to the nature of offenders, else he may be easy with those to whom he must be stern and stern to those with whom he should be easy. He must be warned against the one who simulates contrition and the one who seeks to throw the onus upon others. Also against the one who challenges the court and the one who defends himself with great braggadocio.

Fourth, he must be given some information on how to proceed. Interrogation is necessary to establish the facts, and such interrogation must be calm and purposeful no matter how emotionally excited the disputants may become. Extenuating circumstances must be considered—provocation, temptation, and the like. He must be warned to adjourn the hearing if tempers grow too hot since rarely is it possible to establish the truth in such a situation. He must be advised on how to handle the offender who takes the attitude, "All right, so I did it. Let's get it over with." The judge might naturally bristle at that, but unless he remains cool and collected, little is accomplished.

Fifth, he must have a clear idea of what he can do. He may, for example, without sentence, place the offender on probation. He may sentence, and suspend the sentence. He may consult the faculty adviser for suggestions on just what to do. If the offender is to be placed on probation, there must be a corps of honor students, athletes, student leaders, or just volunteers, who are willing to work with the offender. And since the judge must know the student's personality and conduct record, he must have a clerk who will secure that information for him. Also, the clerk will have to keep a record

of the disposition of a case in the event the offender again gets into trouble. A file drawer of 3 x 5 library cards is good for this purpose.

Sixth, the judge must know what specific sentences he may hand out and must be able to explain clearly to the offender why he is handing out the specific sentence. He may order a period of specific action, as keeping his area clear for a week, if the offender has been reported as a litterbug in the cafeteria. He may order deprivation of privileges for a specified period if the offender has been disorderly under the privilege, as in the case of starting an altercation at a game or dance. He may refer a recidivist to the faculty for a rating of unsatisfactory in character, in which case the school undertakes to present the situation to the parents.

Seventh, he must have some hint as to the circumstance warranting the specific sentences. For example, probation may be ordered when the offender's record is good and he has never been in trouble before or when he has been in trouble but has responded well under the previous probation. Suspended sentence may be given when the offense is serious and without provocation and when the offender has been in only minor trouble previously, as when the offender has struck a classmate who accidentally brushed into him in the hall. Suspended sentence is a sword of Damocles ready to fall into action if the offender reappears. The judge may refer to the faculty adviser when the offender has established a pattern of recidivism, and, after that reference, the court should no longer take jurisdiction save when the proper school authority recommends that it should.

Eighth, the judge must know that when he is unable to reach a decision or is puzzled about what to do, he may suspend or adjourn the hearing to a definite date in order to consult with the faculty adviser of the court or other appropriate school authority.

Finally, he must, to prevent his becoming discouraged or cynical, remember the statement of Ralph Waldo Emerson: "The judge weighs the arguments, and puts a brave face on the matter, and, since there must be a decision, decides as he can, and hopes he has done justice." And the words

of Abraham Lincoln: "I try the best I can, and if the outcome proves me wrong, three angels testifying to the fact, could not prove me right."

No, justice is really not blind, but just groping her way through the darkness into the light.



An Academician Views Public Education

Although it would be comforting to be able to state that the new interest of the scholars in American public education has been the result alone of their own study and serious pondering on their place in American life, and their obligation for the priceless freedom they surely must enjoy as much as any of us, this would not be an accurate representation and not in the tradition of scholarship so to represent it. Like other groups of Americans or peoples anywhere, their new interest and activities are due in considerable part to alarm, which has become acute because of the shortage of scholarly talent in a time of increasing population and technology, the fear of the shortage of adequately trained school teachers, and because of their concern over the products of our schools brought so much into the spotlight by the Bestors, Fullers, and Rudolph Flesches.

Some of the things which the academic people want in public education are:

1. Less emphasis on life adjustment and needs as seen and interpreted by the pupil, and more emphasis on the value of the ideas which make our civilization great and on which significant life achievement (as they see it) can be based.
2. Students better prepared for college and more desire on the part of the more capable to go. . . .
3. At least equal recognition for scholarly achievement with athletics and other extracurricular activities.
4. Less fear of ability grouping.
5. A better school program for the more gifted, perhaps the upper 40 per cent, with an emphasis

on study and scholarship for its own sake, and special effort to create in our boys and girls a love of learning.

6. Teachers better prepared in the subjects which they teach, and in-service programs which help teachers to keep up with the subject matter.

7. Teachers with status as scholars in their schools and communities.

8. A situation in which they can with good conscience recommend that their best students go into teaching.

9. More active participation on their part in teacher education programs.

10. The granting of emergency certificates, if this practice becomes necessary, with emphasis on subject matter rather than professional education.

11. A climate in which it is professionally acceptable for the teacher to say, "I teach children mathematics (or English, or history, or physics, as the case may be), rather than one wherein it is acceptable for such a teacher to say only, "I teach children."

Academic people know, first of all, that they can best achieve their aims by working with professional educators and classroom teachers much more than they have ever done; they also know that if they do this, they will be more sure whether what they now think they want is reasonable and possible to obtain.

It seems doubtful that there is any general disagreement with this list of goals on the part of any teachers, anywhere.—JOHN R. MAYOR in the *Educational Forum*.

Education as a Profession

Guideposts to the Development of Professional Status for Teachers

By JOHN F. OHLES

ONE OF THE FAVORITE TOPICS of educational literature, speakers, and conversation (particularly, just prior to contract time) is the professional prerogatives of teaching. We are constantly reminded of our professional status, exhorted to assume some of its duties, and bitter that we are denied its privileges. The sad truth of the matter—should we dare face a few obvious facts—is that teaching is still in the infantile stage of professional development and there is no assurance that it ever will advance through adolescence to adulthood!

Unfortunately, not even all educators are willing to accept teaching as a profession, despite the ever more obvious fact that nothing else (save a complete spiritual and moral revolution) contains the hope for human progress against the threat of sudden death as does the education of the world's youth. Those teachers who propose to assign the bargaining position of the

factoryworker to their vocation, those administrators who picture teachers in the guise of the day laborer, have failed completely to appreciate the role in society and in history of their own field of endeavor. If teaching does not contain the natural formula for professional status, nothing does!

If we accept the proposition that teaching should be a profession and if we agree that a true professional bearing is yet to be attained, we must then look for clues to the development of a profession. Guideposts to professional status have been posted by physicians, lawyers, and others; the pedagogue need only read the signs and adapt them to the uniqueness of teaching.

The first guidepost suggests that there must be a common group-motivating interest, altruistic in nature, that is more important than the aims of any individual within the group. Educators must be willing to recognize that their primary goal is the education of youth for a better world; the improvement and extension of the educational process must transcend all individual or group considerations. We must be as willing to pledge our time and energy to the guidance of the learner as the physician is to set out in the middle of a stormy night to tend the stricken. Undoubtedly, no one needs to make an issue out of the great cause we serve; just as assuredly, the battle to guarantee continued supremacy of this cause over personal interests can never be relaxed.

The second guidepost suggests complete unity of organization. To gain a true professional status, to realize professional ob-

EDITOR'S NOTE

The characteristics of a true profession are known: It sets standards for entrance; it enrolls practically all practitioners in its association; it guards against malpractice; it stimulates and supports research activities; it nourishes public approval of the contributions of its members. By these criteria, is teaching a profession? Not yet. Unfortunately, not yet. What can be done to advance the professional standing of teachers and of teaching? The writer has some pertinent comments on these questions. He is director of guidance, public schools, Crookston, Minnesota.

jectives, to assure the discharge of professional obligations, and to permit the acceptance of professional rewards, the teaching fraternity must be as all inclusive as the medical or bar associations. The one overriding factor that must govern this united organization is a dedication to the best education for each individual child. This professional "closed shop" is set up not to guarantee more effective bargaining rights but to assure a strength of organization that places on every teacher's shoulder the responsibility for individual and group behavior and practices.

A vitally important aspect of this united professional organization is that it must be unencumbered by any allegiances that might challenge its devotion to the cause of education. It must stand aloof from all social, economic, political, or religious divisions that split and resplit our society. The rationality of other professions in refusing to weaken their primary objective by an association, no matter how advantageous or informal, with other factions of society is even more important to the uniqueness of teaching. Co-operation with politically selected boards of education requires that educational organizations set themselves apart from selected segments of the population.

The third guidepost points toward a commanding voice in setting standards for the profession. It has been demonstrated that relatively small but united, single-purpose organizations can, and do, exert a political influence far out of proportion to their numbers. This political power has been used to set standards of licensing and conduct advancing socially laudable objectives of the group. Teaching is even more favored here, for the increasingly greater responsibility of the state in financing (and thus controlling) education portends a truly impressive influence in educational legislation should the latent political force of a state's educators make itself known. The full scope of that force will never be recog-

nized until teachers form a front united in objectives and in numbers.

A fourth guidepost, the true key to professionalism but the least acceptable to many, the shoal on which professional dreams may shatter, is self-discipline. Association self-discipline and independence from other special interests mark the professional organization from other organized groups. Public recognition, which in fact constitutes professionalism, cannot be won unless teachers are willing to cast out from their midst those who violate the ethics of the profession. Unanimous acceptance of education's social objectives can have meaning only if the teaching profession publicly disavows those whose conduct runs counter to these objectives. The lazy, the incompetent, the person whose presence is more negative than positive among and toward children and young adults, can no more be tolerated than the unethical lawyer or physician. Only as we gain self-respect as a group can we demand or expect respect from others.

The road to a true professional status for teachers is not an easy path—nor should it be. A group becomes a profession only if willing to accept certain responsibilities at the sacrifice of personal self-interest; there is no reason to believe that educators can find a convenient and painless short cut. Progress along the road has been enough to permit us to write and speak of our professionalism but not enough to gain real acceptance among those we designate as educational laymen. Administrator and professor often find the term "profession" a convenient means of recruiting loyalty or support for a program; an antidote to talk of a salary in line with ever more exacting educational requirements and the greater skill needed to deal with increasingly heterogeneous groups; a sop to personal frustrations.

Teachers need not remain in a no-man's land between job and profession, for the trail has already been broken, the guide-

posts are up. An undiluted devotion to education, a solid organizational front, full use of associated power to legislate higher teaching standards, and a willingness to preserve professional integrity through self-discipline will bring the professional mirage into reality. Even those individuals who are most

concerned with temporary and selfish individual goals will find that these limited objectives will also be largely resolved under the public acceptance and support derived from a united and purposeful profession. Education waits on its leaders to mark out the path and order the march.

Education for Socio-Civic Competence

The changing structure and climate of world relations resulting from the efforts of minority groups to achieve first-class citizenship and of small nations to achieve their independence; the efforts of the South to preserve its traditional way of life; the growth of urbanization and industrialization; the role of technology in effecting social and economic change—all reflect the need to examine carefully the socio-civic program of institutions primarily engaged in the education of teachers.

Socio-civic education in a majority of teacher-training institutions is in grave need of this new orientation. Present programs are designed to develop teachers who verbalize the problems of an existing society rather than act to produce needed and desirable changes. The failure of prospective teachers adequately to understand, discuss, and interpret socio-economic changes resulting from movements and events of world-wide significance has created increased concerns about socio-civic education in our universities and colleges. Competence in this area in the broadest sense implies an understanding of human nature and the institutions that man has created to meet his needs. Real learning for socio-civic responsibilities comes only as the product of experience. Therefore, there should be maximum opportunity for participation in the responsibilities of civic life, both in the school and in the community, based on the fundamental premise that the teacher's part in the community includes voting in elections, office holding, volunteer community work, directing students in community

service, belonging to clubs and organizations, and maintaining a household.

A realistic program of socio-civic education for prospective teachers provides insight into the problems of international affairs, of capital and labor, of propaganda and public opinion, of politics and finance, and of industry and personal living. It provides opportunity for the study of current acute problems which give every indication of remaining acute. It seeks to help prospective teachers understand the significance of a world made small by modern means of transportation and communication. It stresses the importance and responsibility of the teacher in achieving the American ideal of democracy. It gives experience in the use of the ballot and teaches the facts about the use of political measures to improve minority group status and conditions.

There is a growing tendency to identify the interest of the common man in one country with that of the common man in every country. It is coming to be realized that the interests, purposes, aspirations, and problems of the masses are common everywhere. This emergence of the common man, comprising all ethnic, religious, and low-economic groups requires trained leadership if they are to develop the sense of responsibility which their increased power demands. The importance and responsibility of the college in preparing prospective teachers to promote the full realization of the desired ends cannot be exaggerated.—LEANDER L. BOYKIN in the *Teachers College Record*.

Events & Opinion

TEACHING BY TELEVISION: With the advent of television and the phenomenal speed with which it developed in recent times, there has been widespread belief in the possibilities of television as an aid to education. However, there were many questions that had to be answered concerning this medium as a teaching device. The problem of teacher, pupil, and parent acceptance had to be resolved. The determination of the subjects which best lend themselves to teaching by television had to be made. Who should teach and who should be taught required clarification. These problems and many more plagued both television people and educators.

In Pittsburgh, in the fall of 1955, a project was started to separate fact from theory and to search for some of the answers to questions relating to teaching by television. The Ford Foundation, through its Fund for the Advancement of Education, gave Station WQED of Pittsburgh a grant with which to conduct television classes in a number of Pittsburgh schools. The A. W. Mellon Education and Charitable Trust made additional funds available. Thus it was that this station conducted, for the first time in the world and under the careful observation of educators, a year-long television teaching demonstration.

A report of this experiment has been issued by the metropolitan Pittsburgh educational station, WQED. It contains the full story of the planning, execution, and evaluation of the project. Abstracts of this report are presented below.

The WQED television teaching demonstration began on Thursday morning, September 8, 1955. At 9:40, the teacher in each of twenty fifth-grade classes in sixteen school buildings in and around Pittsburgh explained to her children that they were to begin their regular reading lessons that

morning over television. A standard 21-inch television set was wheeled into place on a desk-high stand. At exactly 9:45, the television teacher appeared. She greeted the children, introduced herself, and began the prefatory remarks to her first lesson. She continued for twenty-five minutes. During that time, the classroom teacher observed pupils in order that she might solve individual problems during the supplementary period. When the television lesson was ended, the classroom teacher spent the remaining ten minutes of the period in answering questions, taking care of those individual differences in the pupils, and reviewing what had been learned. A total of 639 children—most of them ten year olds—were in those first television classes. Later in the day the same children were given television lessons in arithmetic and French.

It was apparent from the very beginning that the children would accept television teaching smoothly and normally. They related themselves naturally to the teacher. They called her by name, answered the questions she asked, and followed her directions. In fact, educators and visitors alike were surprised by the high rapport between the television teacher and the individual pupil. The children sometimes became absorbed in the lessons to the extent of talking to the teacher and raising their hands to attract her attention.

There were no disciplinary problems during the teaching. However, it was discovered that the use of children before the camera should be limited, since the child in the classroom ceases to be a participant and becomes a spectator when he sees other boys and girls on the program.

It was found that children sick at home or away from school for religious holidays kept up with their work by following the lessons on the TV set at home. A score or

more elementary schools within a fifty-five-mile radius of Pittsburgh, though not involved in the demonstration and not solicited to join it, used some or all of the programs. The response from the rural areas was particularly spirited. It was found that television teaching provides a bonus benefit in that it takes the school to the parents. Fathers and mothers viewed the programs to know how and what their children were being taught, and perhaps to be prepared to answer sometimes embarrassing questions.

On the other hand, certain limitations of the medium became apparent after the first few lessons, and new teaching problems appeared.

Classrooms were not designed for television teaching. Lighting, ventilation, and seating could not always be arranged for the most effective reception of the programs. Reception was not consistently good in all the schools. Blackboard work and charts which were clearly seen in some schools were vague and indistinct in others. Occasional camera burns on the studio cards which the teacher used to develop arithmetic problems, work skills, and vocabulary were a serious technical problem, and one that could not be solved. The ratio of a camera lens and the receiving screen is constant; thus only a limited number of words or figures could be shown at one time. Sentences totaling about ten words were as many as could be used and still be visible from the back of the classroom. The camera could get a clear picture, the receiving set could pick up the picture, but the pupils in the back of the room could not see more words than that. All work has to be adapted to this limitation.

One fact became clearly established early in the demonstration: everyone concerned with a television teaching demonstration works hard. The television teachers found the actual telecasting itself far more rigorous than they had expected for a twenty-five-minute lesson. Said the arithmetic teacher: "A TV lesson differs from a class-

room lesson in its completeness. A TV lesson must be clearly and logically developed, anticipating all questions and eliminating any elements of confusion. When something is said and done, it must be done right. There is no time for repeating." The reading teacher remarked: "The teacher must adapt to a restricted teaching area. Only such movements as are absolutely necessary to the purpose of the lesson are permitted. A classroom teacher can move freely from one area of her room to another, depending on various factors in the lesson. When speaking directly to the children, the television teacher must exercise eye control and look directly at one spot, a particular lens of a particular camera.

As the demonstration continued throughout the school year, various means were used to change the pace of the lessons and hold the children's interest. In one typical month, sixty lessons were prepared and televised. More than 750 visual aids and auditory effects were used in addition to the blackboard and textbooks.

In assessing the effectiveness of the television teaching demonstration, Dr. Earl A. Dimmick, superintendent of Pittsburgh public schools, has made the following statement:

"There are still many questions in the minds of teachers regarding television as an instrument of daily instruction. Although some teachers may think that television constitutes a threat, many others see in it a means toward better instruction and better schools. This Demonstration shows that it does have a great potential. One of the most important by-products of the Demonstration is that it tends to spread quality instruction on a broader base than ever before. Children look at television three to five hours daily in their homes. Since it has come into the homes we cannot keep it out of the schools. And I do not think we will want to keep it out of the schools. It is a question of how to use it most effectively."

JOSEPH GREEN

Book Reviews

FORREST IRWIN, *Book Review Editor*

Our English Language, First Course by MATILDA BAILEY, LALLA WALKER, ROSAMOND MCPHERSON, and JERRY E. REED. New York: American Book Co., 1957. 430 pages, \$3.20.

When your reviewer's two high-school daughters saw lying on the living-room table a copy of *Our English Language, First Course*, they exclaimed delightedly about its attractive cover. Each in turn picked it up, the freshman commenting, "I wish we were using that book in our English class!" The junior remarked that here is what a textbook should be.

The book is certainly noteworthy in appearance and format. The contents live up to the pleasant promise of the cover, with pictures, color, variety, easily read prose, and even a continuous supply of jokes and cartoons to hold the student's attention. A truly helpful device is the use of red ink for important statements. There is every reason to suppose that the student will approach this book with pleasure for a long time after he has first seen it, long enough, it would seem, to get him well started in learning the factual contents therein.

These factual contents are so arranged that each body of knowledge is well distributed throughout the book. The sequence of ideas seems to flow smoothly and logically in gradual steps. Particularly commendable is the development of the grammar, which is presented bit by bit, from simple to difficult, and then fully reviewed in the last fifty pages. Vocabulary building is also given a thorough treatment, with lessons appearing at regular and frequent intervals. So, too, is the difficult matter of listening, about which so much is said nowadays and so little done.

Lessons in spelling and in reading skills appear, along with a wealth of other interests, but it seems to this reviewer that their treatment is not so adequate as the matters mentioned above.

Called a "first course," the book might well be titled a complete course. Just about everything concerning the English language is there, including some controversial matters that your reviewer would have omitted (such as *may-can*, *shall-will*, *different than-from*; case and gender in a noun; the gerund), but it is to be admitted that inclusion of everything has the merit of allowing each instructor to make his own choice of what to teach and what to omit.

Errors in scholarship are bound to occur when the scope is as large as envisioned here. For in-

stance, the Old English word for a meat-bred neat animal as well as for the meat itself was *hrither*, not *cū*, as stated on page 5. Nor did the French have separate words for both animal and meat. This unique vocabulary distinction followed the union of the two languages.

Nevertheless, here is a splendid addition to the growing number of books that are removing the odium from the word "textbook" and proving that factual and difficult material need not always be boring. It extends to the high school the excellence of the *Our English Language* elementary-school series and is herewith heartily recommended for use in junior high, first-year, or even fourth-year high school English classes that aim to make sure that the student leaves high school reasonably well grounded in his native tongue.

FRANK W. GRUBE

Teaching Children to Read (2d ed.) by LILLIAN GRAY and DORA REESE. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1957. 475 pages, \$5.50.

Theories and practices are interwoven to point the next steps to teachers all along the reading way. In secondary schools there should be two main types of reading instruction: remedial reading for those who need it because "a child suffering from reading disabilities is educationally ill," and "developmental reading for all junior and senior high school students in all subjects which require reading skill of any kind." A girl may be able to read poetry beautifully aloud and not able to read the directions in her geometry text. Every subject has its own special skills. The book not only says that but gives twenty-five pages of definite suggestions and plans for teaching reading in the content fields—geography, history including current events, science, and arithmetic. There are sections on how to read about the fine arts, homemaking, and industrial arts and how to read literature.

Boys and girls and reading skills should grow up together, reading used for growth and contributing to growth in an ever expanding spiral of progress. When we sometimes say that children learn to read in the first grade, we should not mean that they are to read like first graders for the rest of their lives! Secondary students need increasingly more mature skills. They need more extensive and more exact fact-finding techniques to sort out and organize new kinds of material, to draw conclusions and understand implications. They need to develop their own

initiative in keeping their vocabularies flourishing so that the meaning of the words that come in to them and the words that they give out to others will increase in meaning for everyday life. They need to raise their standards in tastes and interests to be complete people. They need to engage in ever more extensive voluntary reading—to be self-directing readers and self-directing people.

HELEN RAND MILLER

The Constitution by JOSEPH N. WELCH *et al.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1956. 111 pages, \$2.60.

Those who saw the "Omnibus" television program in which Joseph N. Welch narrated the story of the Constitution will welcome this little volume. Although Mr. Welch makes no claim that the book is a "definitive treatise" on the Constitution, it describes very adequately the adoption, formation, and development of this great document. Professor Richard Hofstadter served as editor and consultant for the work.

This reviewer is impressed with the dramatic and lifelike manner in which the story of our basic law is told. With adequate background the drama of the Philadelphia Convention becomes a reality and its members portray their historic role.

In part two of the book, crises in the new Republic are described. These include reaction to the Alien and Sedition Acts, New England's opposition to the War of 1812, and South Carolina's Ordinance of Nullification. Finally the attempt to secede results in Civil War and ultimate preservation of the Union. In all of these trying times the story centers around the influences of such important figures as Jefferson, Madison, Jackson, Clay, Calhoun, Webster, Douglas, and Lincoln.

Part three unfolds the dramatic development of the Constitution since the Civil War. With the theme of "liberty and justice for all" the role of the Supreme Court as interpreter is portrayed. From the dissenting opinion of Mr. Justice Harlan in 1896, when *Plessy v. Ferguson* was written, to 1954 when Mr. Justice Warren and a unanimous Court outlawed segregation in public schools, the meaning of liberty and justice comes to life in the immortal words of its judicial spokesmen.

History and social studies teachers will be particularly impressed with this excellent and compact source of information and with the author's dramatic approach to a mature understanding of our government. Although the utility of the book would be enhanced with an index, the author has made available an important means of teaching adolescents that the Constitution lives in the minds and hearts of the American people.

EARL T. WILLIS

Teaching in High School (2d ed.) by HUBERT H. MILLS and HARL R. DOUGLASS. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1957. 516 pages, \$5.75.

Teaching in High School, although quite to-mah—516 pages—is actually a composite treatment, synthesis, and critical analysis not only of the best teaching practices and techniques but also of psychology as it applies to learning, the adolescent, the teacher, and the community. Together with treating the psychology of learning, the authors are constantly sensitive to secondary education in its relation to the underlying sociological and economic factors affecting American life. The text vividly conceptualizes the interaction of formal education with the total environment. It does not condemn the teachings of the various disciplines so long as subject matter can be functionalized to have meaning for the adolescent in both school experience and social and vocational experiences. Subject matter per se is in a sense frowned upon, and rightly so.

The syntheses of the various items—discipline, core curriculum, visual instructional materials, and so on—are critically analyzed in an interesting but scholarly manner. The diction is neither purile nor tediously erudite. The text will lend itself well to professional educators, graduate students, and upper-level undergraduate students who have had several foundation courses in education. It should be a *must* in high-school administrators' and teachers' professional libraries, since it touches eclectically every aspect of education as it applies to the total intellectual, social, emotional, and physical growth of adolescent boys and girls. Also it does not neglect the psychology of the teacher—personality, mental health, adjustment, and so on. Lastly, the school and its curriculum are considered carefully in relation to the immediate community as well as the community at large. The text can serve in lieu of a number of lesser texts treating of the items individually.

E. S. CHRISTENBURY

Curriculum Planning (rev. ed.) by EDWARD A. KRUG. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957. 336 pages, \$4.00.

This book is obviously useful as text or reference in courses on curriculum or curriculum building. Certain strong points also make it worth reading simply as a sound and mature application of educational theory and experience.

Krug limns the business of curriculum planning as a complex problem in socioeducational process. This is a basic corrective to the notions of the unsophisticated who would dream up new courses, or indeed whole school programs, in chummy little gab sessions. Further, he indicates the complexity

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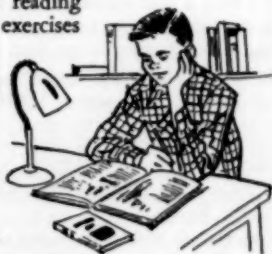
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in seeking bases of educational objectives. He acknowledges among general principles in seeking objectives the claims of human needs and democratic values; he stresses also the impact of mental health, social class, and even differing views on the theory of knowledge on the problem.

As a third strong point, this review chooses to identify the author's deeply respectful view of content. The curriculum movement, of course, has outgrown its erstwhile immature debates of subject matter v. method. Few writers, however, fuse with such ease and clarity the consideration of an effective process for curriculum development with a like consideration of a search for effective substance of learning. Certainly, this book will give no comfort to those barbarians who in the name of reforming the curriculum are at war upon it. No more, however, will the broad scope of his acceptance for the all-school program please those who would cast the American school in the mold of nineteenth century psychology and social aspirations, or would make of it a comfortable haven for those who might deign to do easy teaching of the intellectually—and socially—fit.

It is a practical book. It is practical in its scope. Beyond the foregoing, it gives adequate attention to such subjects as curriculum guides, resource units and their use and making, research activities in

curriculum planning, use of consultants, and curriculum workshops. It is also practical in that he does not try to make hard work look easy. There is no map here of a royal road to a new curriculum. But there is a clear and sensible analysis of the dimensions of the task and of the essence of the tools and process by which it may be advanced.

RYLAND W. CEARLY

The New American Speech by WILHELMINA G. HEDDE and WILLIAM NORWOOD BRIGANCE. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1957. 587 pages, \$3.80.

This is an excellent text for the high-school student. The authors have expressed a sound philosophy of speech education in the most vivid, friendly, and communicative manner possible. Everything about the book is attractive and pleasant: the physical format, the many photographs, the humorous illustrations, the print, and the writing style.

The basic philosophy as expressed in the introduction is that since speechmaking is inherent in a democracy, speech training is inherent in its educational system. The authors go on to base their book on the following three points: (1) Education should now train students in speaking and listening as well as in reading and writing. (2) This training should not be limited to the talented few but

given to all who live in a democracy. (3) This training should prepare future citizens for living in a democracy where the spoken word is now more influential than the written word.

As a college professor who has been irked year after year with freshmen who seem completely unable to organize materials and thoughts, this reviewer was particularly impressed with the soundness and effectiveness of the section on the preparation of a speech. However, this is just one of the many aspects of speech which are treated with equal skill and completeness. The chapters dealing with "Speech Making in a Democracy," "Listening," "Group Discussion," "Oral Interpretation," and "Dramatics" are as stimulating as the earlier chapters on the history and philosophy of speechmaking.

If I were a high-school teacher I should welcome such a helpful book, and I regret that no such pleasant introduction to the field of speech existed when I was a high-school student.

WILLIAM JAY FOLEY

Speech Correction in the Schools by JON EISENSON and MARDEL OGILVIE. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1957. 294 pages, \$4.25.

This text is addressed to the classroom teacher and to the school speech therapist. It covers the basic areas of speech correction—voice and articulation problems, stuttering, delayed speech, and speech of the physically handicapped—in a relatively clear and uncomplicated manner. The authors have long been recognized as leaders in the area of remedial speech, and the theory they present is sound, if elemental. Readers will find little if anything new in the approach. However, they will find a text which should prove useful for a general course in speech correction at the beginning level or for a reference book for the classroom teacher.

One of the best things about the book is the care given in making concrete suggestions for what can be done to help speech-handicapped children. A major problem with the beginning speech correctionist and with the classroom teacher who wants to help with certain speech problems is that, while they may know theory, they are ignorant of specific approaches to use in putting the theory into practice. A study of this text may prove very helpful in this respect.

The book has its faults. One has the feeling that the authors were not so careful in their writing as they should have been. There are two spots in the book where they preface a chapter with a list of things which will be discussed, then do not discuss all of them. There also seems to be a disagreement as to what constitutes an articulation defect; in one place, three varieties of articulatory defects are

listed; in another place, six. Any teacher who has dealt with these small logical defects in a text can testify to the difficulty they cause. Then, too, the diagrams, while good on the whole, are often in need of further explanation. The rear-view diagram of the larynx on page 86 is perhaps the most confusing one presented.

Despite these small, perhaps carping, objections, I liked the book, and plan to adopt it as a text for a class in elementary speech correction. Its good points far outweigh the difficulties caused by carelessness.

LLOYD WATKINS

Teen-agers and Alcohol; a Handbook for the Educator by RAYMOND G. MCCARTHY. New Haven: Publications Division, Yale Center of Alcohol Studies, 1956. 188 pages, \$4.00.

Recent attempts by the states of New Jersey and Connecticut to persuade the New York State Legislature to raise the legal drinking age in the Empire State from eighteen to twenty-one, in accordance with that of its neighbors, vividly bear out the evidence which is presented by Yale's Professor Raymond G. McCarthy in his new work, *Teen-agers and Alcohol*.

Professor McCarthy mentions two facts which cannot be ignored: (1) young people are using alcohol to some degree and (2) they are drinking with parental consent. The crux of the teaching problem in the classroom appears to be to make a definite shift from emphasizing the act of drinking and its physical effects to stressing the attitudes prevalent within the community and the motivations underlying acceptance of drinking practices. Such an approach would be more realistic with the times, according to the author, than a one-sided presentation in behalf of abstinence or moderation.

The well-written and extremely well-documented text displays an unusual amount of work useful to both teacher and administrator. Techniques for full utilization are presented, which include transcribed discussions, film scripts, a motivating quiz about alcohol with correct answers, and student responses to the film, *What About Drinking?*

It is apparent that the author, whose views are corroborated by a number of educational spokesmen, believes a good deal of time should be devoted in the secondary school to the problem of the use of alcohol. Whether the seed planted by Professor McCarthy in his notable work will bear fruit depends on the individual school system—its enlightenment, its attitude, and the vitality of its efforts to assist young people with their current problems.

KENNETH J. HILFMAN

Reading Ability and High School Drop-outs by RUTH C. PENTY. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956. 93 pages, \$2.75.

After surveying research studies dealing with high-school dropouts, Dr. Penty came to the conclusion that too little attention was paid to the reading ability of these students as a causal factor leading to their leaving school. Her study, a comparison of two groups of students—593 poor readers and 593 good readers—who were enrolled in the Battle Creek, Michigan, High School in a four-year period, showed that 49.9 per cent of the poor readers and only 14.5 per cent of the good readers dropped out before graduation. The peak of school leaving for the poor readers occurred during and immediately after completion of the tenth grade. It was found that both the dropouts and the graduates of the poor reader group were reading from the fourth- to the sixth-grade level. Also, there was not enough difference between the two groups in mean-intelligence test scores to account for difference in academic progress.

Personal interviews indicated that the poor readers who were graduated stayed in school because of encouragement from home and teachers, personal drive, and enjoyment in school. The conclusion was reached that "both dropouts and graduates have unrealized potential reading ability. With more effective instruction in reading they could improve their reading and find greater satisfaction in school." Chapter 4 outlines the program used in getting all high-school teachers to co-operate in providing special reading help. Materials and procedures are described briefly.

LOIS M. OTTERMAN

Society and Education by ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST and BERNICE L. NEUGARTEN. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1957. 465 pages, \$5.75.

This text in educational sociology describes the school as part of the American culture, integrated in practices with the culture and sharing contemporary value conflicts. The authors draw widely from social anthropology, sociology, psychology, and education. They include concrete data, diagrams, and case material in which individual attitudes of children, parents, and teachers are presented.

The authors deal with class and caste-like groups, their subcultures, and the opportunities for social mobility. They emphasize the social role of the child within the family, within the peer group, and within the community, and the effect of these groups on the individual's development. The experience and outlook of the child in his life space are shown as the social basis of the formation of character.

A special contribution of this book is the emphasis on the need to maintain balance between conflicting values within our schools. Regimentation, competition, and *esprit de corps* in the school culture are appraised in terms of their significance for a stable and yet more rewarding social life for greater numbers in the future. Teachers must make and teach others to make value judgments in relation to such questions as scholarship prestige and the acceptance of other goals in the school, individual motivation and the needs of society in the school and college programs, social integration and democratic pluralism, intelligent self-interest and world brotherhood. The authors make some value judgments themselves. They see homogeneity of school groups due to suburbanization and other factors as an influence toward social stratification.

The teachers of our schools today appear to be increasingly representative of different classes and viewpoints. They provide various styles of classroom leadership and play different social roles in the school and community. Their economic and social status differs in large and small schools, and in high schools and elementary schools, with the small-town elementary teacher making some of the largest gains recently. The improved position and morale of the profession are reflected in a growing concern for the social and emotional climate of the classroom and its warmth and friendliness and for finding the teacher "who himself treats each child with respect and understanding."

PAUL HEATON

Human Relations in Educational Organization by JAMES MONROE HUGHES. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957. 425 pages, \$4.50.

The concepts of democratic school organization get a refreshing treatment in this book as Dr. Hughes draws on his wealth of experience as a practitioner. His book reflects this experience by the emphasis placed on the involvement of all personnel whose lives are in any way affected by decisions which must be made.

The first section of the book, which deals with "Improving Human Relations," shows exceptional insight into the problems of group action. The author discusses in an interesting and logical manner why professional personnel in an educational institution are well prepared to participate in group action. He points out the importance of complete identification of all personnel with the institution, in order that they understand the need for an organizational pattern. The challenge of the book is reflected in a sentence from the text, "Role interpretation is, at all times and in all instances, the key determinant to success or failure in improving

human relations." The author does not dodge the issues which he raises, but explains them and supports his explanations in a logical manner.

Much of the strength of the book is found in the last three chapters, which deal with organizational techniques of observation, evaluation, and achieving. The reader will find the word "technique" used here with a most interesting connotation. It goes far beyond the idea that technique is a collection of preconceived detailed procedure, but rather suggests that the human relations involved dictates the procedure at all times.

The book, with its emphasis on improving human relations among professional colleagues, by no means excludes the need for such improvement in relations between the people in the profession and the society which the profession serves and from which it gains acceptance.

Colleges offering courses in school administration will find here a book very usable as a text on the graduate level. In the opinion of the reviewer, students will be spurred by it to examine their own philosophy and techniques in the field of human relations. School administrators will find the book both interesting and challenging—a ready reference in planning for future professional growth of the staff.

W. J. JERDE

Your Health and Safety (4th ed.) by JESSIE WILLIAMS CLEMENSEN, THOMAS GORDON LAWRENCE, HOWARD S. HOYMAN, and WILLIAM RALPH LAPORTE. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1957. 576 pages, \$4.08.

The book is attractively arranged and should readily appeal to both instructor and student. The material is well organized, quite readable, and broken down well into its component parts, thereby making its use in teaching more orderly and efficient. It offers the student fixed points to which to orient his thinking. The material is well written and quite explanatory and is presented in such a way that summarization is feasible and effective. The material is also up to date, which is a strong feature of the text, and it is geared to the average student's

level. The outstanding points in the text are well cemented by discussion and summarization. Suggestions for projects are included so that the material can be easily implemented.

The text is well illustrated and these illustrations are quite timely and well spaced. The photography is excellent. The use of illustrations tends further to fix the points that the authors present. Each unit is well developed and, through the use of questions, projects, and summarization the instructor may expand the offerings to a point justified by the background and interest of the students. The study guide is a salient feature of the text. An adequate bibliography is included in each unit. Adequate definitions of the terms used in the text are included.

The text offers a sound basis upon which to develop the areas nearest the daily living of the student. It can be used very effectively owing to its organization and presentation.

CHARLES G. DE SHAW

Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

Dr. Christenbury is associate professor and director of student teaching at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville.

Dr. Cray is director of education for the Educational Television and Radio Center at Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Dr. DeShaw is professor of health and physical education at East Carolina College, Greenville, North Carolina.

Dr. Foley is associate professor of speech at New Haven (Connecticut) State Teachers College.

Dr. Grube is chairman of the department of English at Northwest Missouri State College, Maryville, Missouri.

Dr. Heaton teaches in the department of social studies at Moorhead (Minnesota) State Teachers College.

Mr. Hillman, chairman of the department of social sciences at Bogota (New Jersey) High School, is also a lecturer at Fairleigh Dickinson University.

Dr. Jerde is dean of Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota.

Mrs. Miller is special reading teacher at Presidio Hill School, San Francisco.

Dr. Otterman is director of the reading center at New Haven (Connecticut) State Teachers College.

Prof. Watkins is a teacher of speech at Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

Dr. Willis is dean of instruction at State Teachers College, Salisbury, Maryland.

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TV & NEWER MEDIA

Biography in Sound

"When he came into a room, he was a remarkable presence; the room was just full of electricity."

Although used to open a program which explores the life of Sinclair Lewis, the above quotation could as easily be applied to the series of programs themselves, "Biography in Sound."

A product of the National Broadcasting Company's radio network, "Biography in Sound" is broadcast about once every month as a Tuesday evening "Nightline" feature and is exactly what the name implies. Each hour-long program (9:05-10:00 P.M.) presents a biographical portrait of a single person. N.B.C.'s product is distinguished from so many programs and articles of this type in that "Biography in Sound" is interested more in the man than in what he accomplished. To be sure, famous people are the subjects, but through the use of recorded interviews with people who knew him, through the use of actual recordings of the subject himself, the listener slowly gains a concept of a living person with the personality quirks, doubts, self-fears, as well as the singular traits which pushed the person in question into the abstract dimension of the famous.

Through his friends, business associates, and others who knew him, those who listened to the Lewis "Biography in Sound" found that the author of *Main Street* was very amusing, vivid, and interesting, and at the same time tiring and trying. He was difficult, very difficult at times, confides one contributor to the program. He couldn't hold friendships very long; he was always seeking, never finding. His work habits are described, as are his futile attempts to become a playwright and actor.

Much of the information presented can be culled from written accounts of the subject—but the uniqueness of "Biography in Sound" is that the listener hears these things from the people who actually knew the subject. There is an element of surprise in hearing a person speak the things one might have already known.

I have used "Biography in Sound" in my classrooms a number of times, and it has never

failed to arouse an interest in such personalities as Robert Benchley, Fred Allen, and Will Rogers. After hearing a program dedicated to Dr. Albert Schweitzer, one class carried on a three-day class discussion about fundamental, philosophical questions of Christian living and apparent conflicts with contemporary social values.

The Thomas Wolfe "Biography in Sound" sent nearly half of a ninth-grade class to the library in search of such books as *Look Homeward, Angel*; *Of Time and the River*; and *The Hills Beyond*. But oddly enough most of these ninth graders wanted to read primarily *The Story of a Novel*, in which Thomas Wolfe describes his work habits much the same as the people who knew him described them on the program.

The profiles on Franklin, Woodrow Wilson, and George Washington left no doubt in my mind that they create an immense incentive to read more about such important persons. Part of this result stems from the fact that even the greatest emerge as human beings. In the program dealing with George Washington, for example, the father of our country was at one point denounced bitterly by a contemporary opponent. It is well to point out that all material used on the program is well documented. The concept of the great man being above the lowly concerns of earth creatures receives a thorough going over on "Biography in Sound." The result is that students, recognizing a living personality, want to know more about him. In the case of Sinclair Lewis and other writers, the students want to read more of what the person has written.

There are a great many ways of using "Biography" in the classroom. One method is to use a tape recorder; tape the program and store it until an appropriate time for use. Perhaps a discussion in class will trigger interest which will in turn be heightened by a playing of a program. This happened to me when one class was involved in a study of governments, and the subject of criticizing and making fun of government processes came up. I remembered the Will Rogers "Biography in Sound" I had taped earlier. My playing it for the class led into discussions of what kinds of governments will tolerate this type of satirical criticism and, more interest-

ing, into a discussion of the more serious type of criticism which has replaced Will Rogers' barbs at Congress, and its effectiveness.

Another method of using these programs in class is to assign a written paper dealing with a person who will be a subject of a future "Biography in Sound." It can be pointed out that the person will be a subject of the program on a given date. It is interesting to read some of the papers and then, if possible, play one or two of the "Biographies in Sound" on which the students have written. Advance information of this programing can be obtained by writing to the National Broadcasting Company, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York. Ask to be put on the mailing list for the Program Information Guide. "Listenables and Lookables" also lists the programs each week (*Scholastic Teacher*, 33 West 42d Street, New York 36, New York).

When I used the Lewis and Wolfe programs in class, I required no additional work. Before playing the program, I told the class a little about the man, his accomplishments, his philosophy, work habits, and other interesting bits of information; then I listed his books on the chalk board, following with the playing of the program. A short discussion followed the next day, but I made sure that twenty minutes of the period were left as a work period, during which time the students could go to the library if they so wished. Usually, about a fourth of the class would of their own volition go to the library and either check out books I had listed on the board or else consult reference material for additional information about the subject of the program. It is interesting that this was not a specific assignment for the class.

I am convinced that "Biography in Sound" builds interest in reading; I am further convinced that it gives students a better understanding of "great men" so that these leaders, philosophers, and writers cease to be thought of as dead or stodgy, but rather as vibrantly alive and worth knowing. I believe that students gain a better understanding of themselves through realizing that their own weaknesses and failings are not peculiar to them alone, but apply to others.

But the primary reason I am so completely sold on "Biography in Sound" is that it gives students a chance to learn what the various mass media of communication are really capable of doing. Students learn that the real interest of life, the real entertainment, is centered around a human being's drives, emotions, abilities, desires, and handicaps. With such programing as "Biography in Sound" these personality traits,

this basic human raw material is brought to life. Easily understood, it is entertaining. Students find themselves requiring a new element in their intellectual diet so that the shoddy, the ordinary, the mediocre programing of radio and TV slowly but surely becomes distasteful. In order to contribute a full life to a student, a teacher must prepare him to educate himself. The mass media are the overwhelming forces of adult education. "Biography in Sound" is one of the few programs which can help the "adult-to-be" educator.

Some N.B.C. affiliates do not offer this program. Some program directors live by the rule that they give the public what the public wants, and these directors feel sure that the public couldn't possibly want "Biography in Sound." If "Biography" is not carried in your area, you might write to your N.B.C. affiliate, identifiable by consulting the radio log in your newspaper.

Still another way of making this program available to all teachers would be to write to Caedmon Records (277 Fifth Avenue, New York 16, New York), asking them to add to their splendid repertory the best broadcast "Biographies." The Spoken Word (10 East 39th Street, New York 16, New York) has already released eight of N.B.C.'s now resumed "Conversations."

RALPH E. GAUVEY

University School, Ohio State University

The Screen Writer as Artist

Up until recently, screen writers have often been looked upon as a group of facile hacks whose contribution to the end product, the motion picture, is rather insignificant. The artist in chief has frequently been the director, the gentleman who imbues the picture with the John Ford touch, the John Huston flair, or the Alfred Hitchcock mood. Of course, in many cases, American movies are simply "vehicles" for stars who continually assay the same basic personality. When such a bellwether name as John Wayne, James Stewart, or Alan Ladd graces the marquee, the artistic merit of the picture may be in direct proportion to the number of nuances they have been able to graft unto the basic personality. Somewhere out in deep left field the screen writer has sat, impatiently chain-smoking cigarettes, waiting for his name to become a force in the industry.

Thanks to three such diverse motivating factors as Tennessee Williams, television drama, and the paperback revolution, the screen writer may yet leave the shadow of the bleachers for

a place in the sun, and forthcoming high-school-literature anthologists might see fit to include screenplays in their collections. Mr. Williams aided the movement by insisting that movie adaptations of his major plays be quality productions. He did not merely sign away screen rights to his dramas and allow Hollywood rewrite experts to tamper with the scripts as they pleased. *The Glass Menagerie*, *A Streetcar Named Desire*, and *The Rose Tattoo* were engrossing, artistic movies which helped bring the writer's prestige to the level of the director and star. Unlike many novelists and playwrights who preceded him on the golden road to Hollywood, Mr. Williams was able to recognize his works when they reached the silver screen.

A few years ago, certain TV drama programs began giving audio credits to script writers (i.e., they mentioned the name as well as flashing it on the screen), and such names as Paddy Chayefsky, Reginald Rose, Rod Serling, Gore Vidal, and others, became part of the well-tuned listener's vocabulary. Some TV watchers began looking at certain dramatic programs not because they starred Miss X or were directed by Mr. Y but because they were written by a certain person. The significance of this new type of box-office lure was not lost on the motion picture executives, who promptly asked a number of these TV writers to join them, even going so far as to make full-length movies of plays which had already been presented on television.

Another movement occurred some time ago which provides the third impetus in the movie writer's rise to fame. The publishers of paperback books discovered that they could stimulate sales considerably by tying in their titles with current movies. Thus many titles which were about ready for the month-end clearance racks were rejuvenated, and the movies received added publicity. These publishers were not only reissuing novels which had recently been made into movies but, in their voracious quest for material, they began publishing plays (i. e., Broadway hits which were being converted into movies), and the drugstore literati began reading drama in its raw state.

Last year Tennessee Williams, a shrewd showman as well as an artist of great insight (whose *A Streetcar Named Desire* had long since appeared in a paperback edition), launched a paperback printing of the shooting script of *Baby Doll*, one of the most controversial—and well-publicized—pictures of the past decade. Since *Baby Doll* was based on a short story, the movie was virtually an original screenplay. Buyers of paperbacks began buying movie dramas.

A Face in the Crowd has similar origins, Budd Schulberg having worked out the script from a short story of his own. Director Elia Kazan, who had handled a number of Williams' plays, spent a considerable amount of time working with Mr. Schulberg on the picture, and this working comradery between director and writer has helped move the latter into the frontline artistic echelons. Mr. Kazan's brief introductory essay in Bantam Books' *A Face in the Crowd* documents the growing importance of the writer in the Hollywood milieu.

Neither *Baby Doll* nor *A Face in the Crowd* may be very suitable for high-school study, but if the screen writer can get his share of laurels, perhaps we can hope for greater literacy from the big screen people and a new form of drama to consider in the classroom.

H.B.M.

PRINTED PERSPECTIVES

"The American Story" and the Mass Media

One of the most serious charges teachers level against our entertainment culture is that the mass media interpose a wall of triviality between the ordinary citizen and our complex and indispensable heritage of beliefs and values. Most American minds are like high-fidelity receiving sets, tuned to the right frequency but jammed by an overwhelmingly strong signal of diversion. Broadcasters are aware of this danger, and many responsible programming executives try to devote some time and talent to make the mass audience more appreciative of its past. For example, this fall, C.B.S.-TV will present a weekly series on "The Twentieth Century," sponsored by the same company that brought "You Are There" indirectly into many classrooms. (The best of these films, by the way, can be used directly now through Young America Films or regional film libraries.)

N.B.C.-TV continues the important "Project Twenty" tradition with "Trial Party" on the Antarctic and "The Innocent Years" on the pre-World War I era. Still in the planning stage at that network, but definitely worth watching and waiting for, are on-location, live programs made possible by the technical experience of the "Wide, Wide World" staff: Stephen Vincent Benét's "John Brown's Body" from Harpers Ferry; Hawthorne's "The Scarlet Letter" from Salem, Massachusetts; "Huckleberry Finn" done from a raft on the Mississippi near Hannibal,

Missouri; and a Revolutionary War drama telecast from Williamsburg. For these, teachers are grateful; and it goes without saying that the programs will be useful not only for their enrichment of the curriculum but most importantly because they will help us teach students to expect more than frivolity from that powerful and potentially pervasive medium of enlightenment. But many still have good reason to feel that the cumulative impact of the mass media, TV especially, is distinctively uneducational, if not antieducational. The liabilities of day-by-day distractions still far outstrip the assets of now-and-then seriousness.

Perhaps there is a tendency to place too much faith in the educational possibilities of a glamorous mass medium like commercial television. Yet TV's now dowdy elder sister, radio, still has a lot of educational power. Take, for example, a new volume of radio scripts prepared for Broadcast Music, Inc., by the Society of American Historians and edited by Earl Schenck Miers—*The American Story: from Columbus to the Atom* (Great Neck, N.Y.: Channel Press, Inc., 1956; 352 pages, \$5.00). Sixty leading historians have written short radio talks in their special fields for broadcast over stations throughout the United States. Averaging five printed pages, these highly readable essays cover every phase of American history—biographical, economic, political, social, cultural, and diplomatic.

Teachers will find the volume a convenient refresher and source of new interpretations from historians of the stature of Carl Bridenbaugh and Thomas J. Wertenbaker on the colonial period; Dumas Malone and Irving Brant on the Revolutionary days; George Dangerfield and Thomas Cochran on the national era; Arthur Schlesinger, Jr., and Oliver W. Larkin on the age of Jackson; Bell Wiley and Bruce Catton on the Civil War; Eric F. Goldman and Allan Nevins on the Gilded Age; Howard Mumford Jones and Arthur Link on the twentieth century before the New Deal; Frank Freidel and Irving Howe on the depression and cold war. For students, the volume is extraordinarily useful outside reading. But beyond the use of this book in the classroom, high-school history teachers have a striking opportunity to influence their communities by requesting their local radio stations to use the free, fifteen-minute scripts on which this series was based: Write Broadcast Music, Inc., 589 Fifth Avenue, New York 17, New York.

The Society of American Historians has other projects that are "naturals" for the public schools: *American Heritage*, edited by Bruce

Catton, a bimonthly book magazine, 551 Fifth Avenue, New York 17, annual subscription of \$12.00 (the color reproductions are practically worth that price alone); *The American Heritage Reader* (Dell Pocketbooks, 261 Fifth Avenue, New York 16, 50 cents), twenty essays sampling the excellent writing found in each issue; and *The World of History* (New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue, New York 22, 35 cents), twenty-eight essays on world history. By the way, these volumes prove conclusively that those who repeat the old cliché about historians' poor writing style simply confess they haven't been reading history lately.

And while we remind ourselves that the book is not at all eclipsed as a medium of mass communication between scholar and teacher and student, we should mention two growing series that would be rich additions to high school libraries.

One is "The Library of American Biography," edited by Oscar Handlin for Little Brown, with volumes on Grant, Franklin, Webster, Garrison, Wilson, Clay, Booker T. Washington, and others. This series approaches an area of American history through one prominent figure (e.g., Oliver W. Larkin's *Samuel F. B. Morse and American Democratic Art*); such a biographical slant makes the volumes (ca. 200 pages each) eminently suitable for high-school students.

"The New American Nation Series," edited by Henry Steele Commager and Richard B. Morris (Harper and Brothers), on the other hand, will bring that standard collection abreast of current scholarship, as, for example, in Louis B. Wright's summary of our knowledge about social classes, trade, immigration, religion, education, literary culture and the other arts, science, and communication in *The Cultural Life of the American Colonies, 1607-1763*. There are other volumes on the English people on the eve of colonization, America's rise to world power in the twentieth century, the American Revolution, and Woodrow Wilson's significance in American politics. This Harper series is ideal both for classroom and library reference and for teachers anxious to take in-service training on the latest findings of contemporary American historians.

Our scholars at present are doing a brilliant job of making their knowledge available for the general audience. The public school classroom is the mass medium over which they should be broadcast; and only the teacher can plan that kind of "programing."

P.D.H.

Living Religions

The World's Great Religions by the editors of *Life*. New York: Time, Inc., 1957. 310 pages, \$13.50. Supplemented by six filmstrips on Hinduism, Buddhism, Confucianism and Taoism, Judaism, Islam, and Christianity, \$30.

This handsome folio volume surveys the major "living" religions. Its theme, set by the late Dr. Paul Hutchinson, is the unity of man's spiritual aspiration manifested in a plurality of expression and form. This motif is extended to the six major religions of the world and to their various sects, branches, and subdivisions. The religions are depicted in both their historical and contemporary aspects: first, in relation to the attractions and demands of the secular world in which their primitive theologies took form; secondly, as they have in the past and are in the present interacting to the tension between natural and supernatural realities in diverse cultural contexts; and finally as a force which at once liberates the mind from cosmological anxieties yet binds the mind, will, and heart of man with a set of rigid ideas, rituals, and restrictive behavior patterns. The conception of this study is a synthetic treatment of the manifold influences upon the origin and development of world religions.

The text is a vastly compressed account of the beliefs and traditions of Hinduism, Buddhism, Confucianism, Taoism, Mohammedanism, Judaism, Christianity, and their related branches. Excerpts from their respective sacred writings provide insights into the poetic and theological character of these religions, particularly the Eastern religions so unfamiliar to the Western world. Several articles, such as those of Lin Yutang and Emmet John Hughes, discuss some of the major problems of modern religions as they confront the pressures of current socio-economic events. Though Dr. Hutchinson's objective of presenting the diversity of man's spiritual ideals in their fullest integrity has been essentially maintained in the text, several of the captions to illustrations employing words like "weird," "gory," and "bloodthirsty" to describe some of the rituals uncommon in Western religions contradict his basic orientation. Genuine understanding of and respect for religious pluralism must consciously avoid any suggestion or concentration upon the curious and the bizarre element. The brevity of the text whets more than satisfies the intellectual appetite of the reader, and the editors pass up a unique opportunity of suggesting supplementary reading, perhaps titles from scholars who acted as consultants.

Without doubt the most impressive feature of the book is the visual presentation—its 190 pages of reproductions and photographs being itself a veritable treasury of art. Ancient shrines, churches, and synagogues, modern architectural expressions of man's persistent homage to the divine, along with numerous photographs of religious services, rituals, and church activities impress the viewer with the vitality of these religions and justify their treatment as "living" religions. Six filmstrips, based upon the contents of the book, can be purchased and used independently. These films dramatize the effectiveness of visual portrayal and the stimulating role vision plays in the learning process. At no other point in history has it been possible virtually to recreate the past to so wide and growingly appreciative an audience. This present study reveals the potentiality which lies ahead in the field of exciting educational and recreational opportunities.

KENNETH F. LEWALSKI
History Department, Brown University

Motivational Research

The Hidden Persuaders by VANCE PACKARD. New York: David McKay, 275 pages, \$4.00.

Shopping has become the new American recreation. The consumer infers its popularity from the congestion of the suburban shopping centers on Friday night. Sociologists like David Riesman have recognized the need for intelligent, creative consumership. Not long ago *Life* subtly suggested that consumption had displaced thrift in the scale of Yankee virtues. And more interested parties, the hidden persuaders, are exploiting the new pastime.

"Motivational research" is the use of psychological insight and sociological data to sell goods. Producers who find their sales lagging consult the "depth boys" to find strategies to keep their own curves (sales) from sagging. With techniques ranging from "depth interviews" of potential consumers to hidden cameras recording customer eye-blink rates in supermarkets, the MR men find out what makes a product move (or not move) off the plain racks into everywoman's kitchen cupboard.

Subconscious tastes and prejudices are exposed with a disregard for human privacy and dignity that is unsettling: psychoanalysis of little girls to sell home permanents, charting of women's menstrual cycles to move cake mixes, use of scientific methods to both brainwash the child and hoodwink the mother with schizoid TV programs. Mr. Packard submits evidence to

suggest that MR is, in short, the prostitution of science to make us buy what we do not want, cannot afford, and will not use—and preferably on time.

Disturbing as this manipulation, indeed nurturing, of human anxiety is, even more disturbing is the "packaging" of politicians and the "engineering of consent" which the author examines in the second half of his book. Public susceptibility to political persuasion, Madison Avenue variety, is not unrelated to all the other types of commercial brainwashing.

Hope for human dignity lies in sales resistance as knowledgeable and as cynical as the sales pitch. The beginning of such resistance comes from the kind of awareness *The Hidden Persuaders* makes possible.

MARY E. HAZARD
Levittown, Pennsylvania

From the Critics' Notebook

DIMOUT ON CONTROVERSY: THE DECLINE OF TV DRAMA (Jack Gould, *New York Times*, June 25, 1957): "A great deal of TV drama has drifted steadily toward a sterile innocuousness. The new young writers who rose to prominence in the medium several years ago have all but abandoned the home screen in favor of chores elsewhere. Sponsors impatient for high ratings have wanted safe vehicles of proven appeal, actually dramas based on incidents in the news, mysteries, suspense works and plays on the problems of married life.

"All these dramatic forms surely have their place in TV, but so, too, should plays that appeal to the intellect, that are stimulating to the imagination and are provocative and challenging to one's accepted way of thinking. It seems inconceivable that today's dramatics have nothing to put down on paper about the atomic age, civil liberties, segregation, suburban conformity and the worship of security, among a host of other themes that could be the framework for persuasive theatre."

TRANSCRIPTIONS

Bay State Ballads sung by Paul Clayton (Folkways Records, Album No. FP 47/2).

This collection of fourteen Massachusetts ballads has more than state or regional appeal. Not the province of the antiquarian, they are a part of our heritage from that sturdy culture which grew up next to the sea and spread inland to all America. Side 1 presents songs of the sailors and whalers; side 2, songs of the land.

Three of the most popular sea chanteys, "Cape Cod Girls," "Blow the Man Down," and "Whiskey Johnny," are included. Of even greater interest are two songs found in whaling logs of the mid-nineteenth century. First among the land songs is the most famous Massachusetts ballad of all: "Springfield Mountain." "The Bailiff's Daughter" and "Polly Van" follow the long tradition of the English love ballad, while "The Embargo," more specifically historical, finds its genesis in the resentment which was felt by the merchants of New England following the enactment of the Embargo Acts of 1807 and 1809. "The Old Soldier" goes back at least to the Civil War.

The notes, prepared by Kenneth Goldstein and Paul Clayton, are informative and useful to both English and social studies teachers. Mr. Clayton's performance bears testimony to the years of devotion and delight he has given to folk singing.

A Round of Poems, selected from *Invitation to Poetry* and read with a round of comments by Lloyd Frankenberg (Columbia Masterworks, ML 5148).

It was Mr. Frankenberg's intention that this record complement his recent book, *Invitation to Poetry, a Round of Poems from John Skelton to Dylan Thomas* (New York: Doubleday and Company, 1956).

Mr. Frankenberg writes: "In both book and record the intention is less systematic than playful, in the sense of a free play of ideas. There is no attempt to be historical, representative, or to ask the question, 'Who are the best poets and what are their best poems?' That way lies the occupational hazard of anthologies."

The recording includes some twenty poems ranging from Mother Goose, an anonymous ballad, Shakespeare sonnets, selections from Donne and Sir Walter Raleigh, Browning, Tennyson, and Emily Dickinson. About a third of the poems are familiar anthology pieces; the remainder would be new material to most high-school students.

The major portion of side 2 is concerned with what Mr. Frankenberg has called "a round of comments." These comments are in no sense explanations of the poems, but rather an attempt to pose a leading question, to direct a major insight, into each of the poems previously read.

The record is an interesting experiment with definite possibilities as a classroom exercise.

FRANK and AUDREY HODGINS
University of Illinois

➤ Audio-Visual News ➤

By EVERETT B. LARE

Flannel-Board Visuals

The L. A. Whitney Associates, Inc., 331 Madison Ave., New York 17, N.Y., have prepared and distributed two useful flannel-board visuals, entitled "Demonstration of Blood Types" and "Fertilization and the Determination of Sex." A teacher's guide accompanies each of the flannelgraphs. The flannelgraph material is covered with flocking, electrostatically applied to one side. These materials have proved very useful in biology or health classes.

Also available from them is a flannel board cover 3 by 4 feet, price \$5.00. Fibergrip sheets are available in seven colors: red, coral, yellow, green, blue, black, and white. Seven 14 by 22 inch sheets may be purchased for \$5.25.

DEMONSTRATION OF BLOOD TYPES: \$12.00. This flannelgraph material illustrates the four blood types by means of two kinds of disks. Some include agglutination while others include non-agglutination. When arranged properly, they indicate what types of blood could be received by a person having a certain type in his system. Types O, A, B, and AB can be readily demonstrated and the student given an opportunity to show that he understands concepts desired.

FERTILIZATION AND THE DETERMINATION OF SEX: \$15.00. This flannelgraph is designed to convey to the student the idea of fertilization and meiosis, finally combining both to illustrate how sex in the human is determined. For simplification, an organism containing four chromosomes in each body cell is illustrated. In the process of meiosis each cell divides, giving two chromosomes to each of the sex cells. Then, during fertilization, these unite, restoring the original four chromosomes. Graphically are shown the X and Y chromosomes producing male and female. (Sr. H.S.)

Mechanical Drawing Series

The following series of films and filmstrips is one of those highly recommended for mechanical drawing classes and blueprint-reading classes. It consists of eight films and seven filmstrips. The filmstrips may be used by themselves but it is better to use the film to present the material and use the filmstrip as a review, supplemented with comments by the teacher. One advantage of using the films is that motion may be shown in the film, whereas in the filmstrip it can only be indicated.

These films and filmstrips are correlated with the textbook, *Mechanical Drawing*, by French and Svensen.

Source information: FILMS: Black and white; 10 minutes; Purchase, \$65.00. FILMSTRIPS: Black and white; Purchase, \$4.25. McGraw-Hill Text Film Department, 330 West 42d St., New York 36, N.Y.

THE LANGUAGE OF DRAWING: Film, no filmstrip. This film pictorially and verbally depicts the fact that a universal language is necessary for architects, builders, and workmen. This language is the language of mechanical drawing and blueprints. (Jr.-Sr. H.S.)

SHOP PROCEDURES: Film and filmstrip. Drawings are used in almost every step of manufacture. The drawing tells the workmen how to construct and finish the project. Blueprints are copies of drawings. In the pattern shop, wooden patterns are made in the shape of the castings needed. In the foundry, castings are made in sand and molds and framed by the patterns. In the machine shop, castings and other rough parts are finished according to specifications. The lathe is used to finish cylindrical pieces. The drill press is used to drill holes. Flat surfaces or grooved surfaces are often cut on milling machines. Flat surfaces, grooves, and keyways are sometimes cut on a shaper. Hard surfaces can be finished to great accuracy on a grinder. The pattern is made larger than the casting and the casting larger than the finished part in order to allow for finishing the part. A sand casting is made in two parts. Cores are used. Threads may be cut on a lathe. Boring and reaming may also be done on a lathe. A drill press may be used for countersinking and counterboring. (Jr.-Sr. H.S.)

SHAPE DESCRIPTION, PART I: Film and filmstrip. This film and filmstrip point out that mechanical drawing is a language used by draftsmen and engineers to tell how things should be made. A perspective sketch does not describe all details and objects clearly. In order to see the exact shape of an object, one must apparently look at it from different points of view. This is done by orthographic projection. Lines from every point on an object perpendicular to a plane project the view of an object on the plane. Three views projected on planes parallel to the three surfaces of an object describe its shape. These two surfaces may be opened up and laid out on a flat surface. A surface perpendicular to a plane of projection is projected as a line. A surface inclined to the plane of projection

appears foreshortened. A line perpendicular to a plane of projection will be projected as a point. In all, six views of an object may be needed to describe it, but usually three are sufficient. (Jr.-Sr. H.S.)

SHAPE DESCRIPTION, PART II: Film and filmstrip. This film is a continuation of Shape Description, Part I. It continues with a drawing of the same bracket used in Part I. With the three vertical planes arranged in a cube form, projection lines are drawn from the object to each of the three faces. Projection lines creating the front and top views become parallel lines connecting the top and front views. Therefore, the top front views must be drawn in line with each other. The same process is used to draw projection lines creating the front and side views. The three views are laid out on a vertical plane. The width of the vertical portion and the height of the base are laid out. The center lines are located. The cutoff corner is shown in all three views. (Jr.-Sr. H.S.)

AUXILIARY VIEWS, PART I: Film and Filmstrip. This film starts off with a review of the three principal views, the three sides of the cube. The principal planes are mutually perpendicular and parallel to the principal surfaces of the object. The slanting face of the object can be shown only on a plane parallel to that face. This plane is called an auxiliary plane. The view projected on the auxiliary plane is called an auxiliary view. In the construction of the blueprint, the principal views are laid out as far as possible. Then a reference line is drawn to the auxiliary view parallel to the edge view of the slanting face. One set of measurements is secured from the slanting face as an edge. Other measurements are secured from the view which shows the slanting face foreshortened. (Jr.-Sr. H.S.)

AUXILIARY VIEWS, PART II: Film and Filmstrip. There are three types of auxiliary views: auxiliary elevation, right and left auxiliary, and front and rear auxiliary. Only the position of the auxiliary plane distinguishes the three types of auxiliaries. For an auxiliary elevation, the auxiliary plane is perpendicular to the top plane. For a right or left auxiliary, the auxiliary plane is perpendicular to the front plane. For a front or rear auxiliary, the plane is perpendicular to the side plane. In each, the auxiliary plane is perpendicular to one principal plane inclined to the other two. The position of the auxiliary tells the position of the auxiliary view on the drawing paper. The reference line for the auxiliary view is drawn parallel to the edge view of the slanting face. (Jr.-Sr. H.S.)

SECTIONS: Film and filmstrip. A section is a special kind of view made to reveal details inside an object. To make a section, imagine that the

object is cut by a plane. Remove part of the object. Draw the flat surface in orthographic projection. The cutting plane can be offset to reveal details of more than one plane. An example is two holes in a casting that are different elevations and different depths. If a section is made half way across an object, the inside details are revealed in the same view. Sometimes the section is made if part of the object is thought of as being broken out—for instance, the inside of a hollow bolt. Sometimes a section is revolved to show detail. This revolved section may be left in its place or removed outside the view. (Jr.-Sr. H.S.)

SIZE DESCRIPTION: Film and filmstrip. Orthographic views do not describe the size of an object. Measurements must be given on a drawing to tell the size. These are called dimensions. Size dimensions should include information about material, finish, and certain shop operations. Extension lines, dimension lines, and arrowheads are symbols used in dimensioning. Dimensions should tell the size of each part and its location in relation to the other parts. Size dimension tells how parts are located in relation to one another. These dimensions are given to tell the workman what measurements he will have to make. (Jr.-Sr. H.S.)

Comments: These films and filmstrips give in a clearly developed sequence the reasons and uses for mechanical drawing and blueprints. Clearly developed also is the concept of orthographic projection. Auxiliary views, sections, and size description complete the well-rounded series in the steps toward an understanding of mechanical drawing. They are characterized by their visual clarity, attractiveness, and strength of their picture content. In the filmstrips are opportunities for student participation and follow-up. Both films and filmstrips may be used for introduction, presentation, and review.

New Filmstrips

AN INTRODUCTION TO RUBBER: Filmstrip; Black and white; 50 frames; free; Teachers Library, Inc., 790 Broadway, New York 19, N.Y. The Teachers Library, in co-operation with the United States Rubber Company, has produced this new filmstrip. It considers uses of rubber, then production of natural rubber and synthetic rubber. Ninety-five per cent of the natural rubber comes from the Far East. It is made from the juice of the rubber tree and is called latex. The latex is made into many forms—for instance, foam rubber mattresses, automobile tires, truck tires, and shoes. Synthetic rubber is made from chemicals. Natural rubber is better for some products and synthetic rubber is better for others. An illustration is shown

of the construction of an automobile tire. The cord is made of strands of rayon or nylon which were dipped into liquid rubber to make a sheet of fabric. These sheets are cut on the bias to make strips called plies. The typical tire is built of four plies and layers anchored to a coil of steel wire. The tread consists of one ply and then white side wall is added. The tire is then molded and vulcanized to produce the finished product.

Comment: This filmstrip would be useful on an elementary science or social studies level. It is almost completely nontechnical. The strength is in its diagrams and commentary. (Elementary)

INTRODUCTION TO MAPS: 35 mm filmstrip, 26 frames, B & W, produced by the National Film Board of Canada and distributed by the Stanley Bowmar Co., Valhalla, N.Y. An instructive aid which suggests activities for elementary and junior high youngsters. The series progresses from a map of the school grounds to an aerial view of the school, next to a map of the village, and thence, by stages, to a map of the world. The differences between a flat map and a spherical or globular map are pointed out and the distortions of the Mercator's projection are shown. A manual describing each frame is provided. (Elementary, Jr. H.)

Let Us Square Dance

A series of films introducing the techniques of square dancing is being gradually released by Indiana University. The first in this series was produced in 1954. At the present time five titles have been released with one more to follow. They are as follows: "Take a Little Peek," "Split the Ring," "Grapevine Twist," "Forward up Six," "Texas Star," and "Hoosier Promenade." All are released by Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. Length is approximately 10 minutes each; color, \$100; black and white, \$50. In color this is a very attractive series of films. In black and white they did not seem nearly so attractive to this reviewer, though many of the previewers thought that they were just as effective. However, I believe most people would prefer them in color, especially because the different couples taking part in the square dances stand out more vividly in color.

The first film in the series starts out with the simplest techniques of square dancing and each subsequent film introduces new and more complicated techniques. The music and calls which are presented in each film have been recorded on 12-inch 78-r.p.m. discs. A manual describing the calls and movements for each dance, including drawings and diagrams, is available for each film. Complimentary copies of the record and manual accompany

each film. Additional records are \$3.00 each. Additional copies of the manual are \$2.00 each. The film may be purchased on a four-year rental-payment plan at \$13.50 a year for black and white and \$27.00 for color. In addition to being available from Indiana University, films are also available from the Educational Film Library Association, Inc., 250 West 57th Street, New York 17, New York.

TAKE A LITTLE PEEK: In this film the opening sequence shows all sets dancing "Take a Little Peek." Then as one square demonstrates such fundamentals as forming a square, the narrator describes a number of basic terms, including set, partner, and corner. This square also demonstrates the circling left and back, move down, and the swing. Slow-motion photography is used to illustrate the position of the feet and the gliding movement of the swing. After one couple dances the "Take a Little Peek" figure, animated symbols representing the four couples repeat the figure and illustrate the pattern. Finally, the three squares featured in the opening scenes dance to synchronized music and calls.

SPLIT THE RING: This film opens with a synchronized sound sequence which shows three squares dancing a representative section of "Split the Ring" and includes all the movements to it. In the following sequence, one square demonstrates in both normal speed and slow-motion photography the forward and back movement, the grand-right-and-left movement, and the promenade. The film then shows the opening step of the figure as performed by one couple. Each movement is explained by the narration and then by the use of animated patterns of the figure. The film closes with a dancing sequence including synchronized music and calls.

THE GRAPEVINE TWIST: This film follows the technique of the previous two films. It starts off with four couples dancing "The Grapevine Twist." One couple demonstrates the new steps in the figure. This is followed by slow motion and animated photography to teach the basic pattern of "The Grapevine Twist." It concludes with all four couples enjoying the fun of this square dance.

FORWARD UP SIX: This film uses slow-motion as well as normal speed photography to teach the basic pattern of the "Forward up Six" figure with emphasis on difficult movements, such as right hand up and left lady under. It introduces grand right and left all the way around the circle and the two-step balance. It starts off with synchronized music and calls and ends in the same manner.

The remaining two titles in the series were not available for preview at this writing.

Laboratory Techniques

USING THE LABORATORY (Chemistry and Physics): Film; 10 mins.; Color (\$100), Black and white (\$50); Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Bldg., Chicago 1, Ill.

Summary: A science problem raised and discussed in the classroom is explored in the laboratory. The class has been talking about what makes chemical reactions go faster or slower. The question explored is this: for a given weight of metal, which has greater exposed surface, larger or smaller pieces? Which will react faster? One of the better students is observed in the laboratory as he investigates this problem. Before starting the experiment, he puts on an apron to protect his clothes. He cleans his desk and equipment. He uses safety precautions in assembling a gas-generating apparatus. He is careful when lighting the Bunsen burner. Before putting in the chemicals, he asks his teacher to check the apparatus. Since this is to be a timed experiment, he carefully checks the second hand on the wall clock and records the time. He repeats the experiment to be sure he has made no error. Since the problem is to find out which metal will react the faster, the larger or smaller pieces of metal, he now repeats the experiment, using the smaller pieces of metal. Upon checking this second half of the experiment, he finds a discrepancy of ten seconds. He concludes that he has made a mistake. Therefore, he checks to see what has gone wrong. Upon discovering the cause, he repeats the experiment with the smaller pieces of zinc a third time. When he has finished, he puts things away neatly and leaves his desk clean.

Criticism: This film illustrates not only good laboratory techniques but the problem-solving method in a laboratory science. The demonstration used is one that can easily be performed in a chemistry laboratory. The film could profitably be shown near the beginning of the year. This would introduce a unit of study usually taken up at that time and also introduce proper laboratory techniques as mentioned above. The film previewed was in black and white. This was found to be perfectly satisfactory. I do not believe that color would add much to this picture. The vocabulary level is suitable for chemistry students. The pictures, reinforced by the commentary, produce a logical and smooth development. The natural follow-up would be for the students to perform the same experiment themselves. It is rated as an excellent film for its designed purposes. An excellent study guide accompanies the film. (Sr. H.S.)

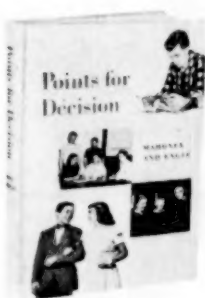
Re Texas

TEXAS AND ITS NATURAL RESOURCES: 16 mm film, 1,200 feet, color (free loan), Bureau of Mines, Department of the Interior, Pittsburgh, Pa. This interesting, attractive film presents the historic, scenic, mineral, and agricultural development of this, the largest state in the Union. Starting with a western atmosphere, it visits Austin, San Antonio, Dallas, and other cities. The mining of iron ore, the manufacturing of steel, zinc smelters using natural gas, the production of various chemicals, visiting oil wells and refineries, the use of natural gas to make carbon black, the production of helium, use of lignite for power, the mining of sulphur, and separation of magnesium from sea water are the high lights of the section of the film devoted to mineral resources. Agricultural industries stressed are the raising of cotton, wheat, sorghum, tomatoes, grapefruit, and vegetables. Lumbering is carried on in the harvesting of pine forests as a crop. The raising of cattle, sheep, and horses completes the picture of industries.

This film could be used in social studies as a survey of the historical background and industries of Texas. General science classes and even physics and chemistry classes would find the sequences showing industrial processes of value. The production of carbon black, the mining of sulphur, and the chemical processes in refining magnesium would be especially important. The number of concepts is very great as this is a fast-moving film. As a survey it is fine. For intensive study, several showings would be necessary. (Jr. and Sr. H.)

Current Affairs Films

The free Current Affairs filmstrips mentioned in the February, 1956, issue are available to many school systems throughout the country through local newspaper sponsorship. The filmstrips are produced under the direct supervision of Professor Manson Van B. Jennings, Social Studies Department, Teachers College, Columbia University. The following newspapers will be glad to add names to their mailing lists for these free materials: New York *Journal-American*, Baltimore *News-Post*, Detroit *Times*, Buffalo *Evening News*, Columbus, Ohio, *Citizen*, Cincinnati *Times-Star*, San Francisco *Call-Bulletin*, Honolulu *Advertiser*, and the Greenfield, Mass., *Recorder-Gazette*. Teachers in other areas should get in touch directly with Current Affairs Films, 527 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y. New titles are: *The Farm Problem*; *Words as Weapons—the Battle for Men's Minds*; *The New Japan*; and *The Geophysical Year*. (Jr.-Sr. H.S.)



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